The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 19, 1891.

The Week.

We comment elsewhere on the letter by which Mr. Cleveland has given another signal illustration of his courage. It is brief, but it covers the whole ground, and it defines his position even the more clearly and emphatically for its brevity. After stating his inability to attend the meeting of the Reform Club, the writer says:

"I am glad that the business interests of New York are at last to be heard on the subject. It surely cannot be necessary for me to make a formal expression of my agreement with those who believe that the greatest perils would be invited by the adoption of the scheme embraced in the measure now pending in Congress for an unlimited coinage of silver at our mints. If we have developed an unexpected capacity for the assimilation of a largely increased volume of the currency, and even if we have demonstrated the usefulness of such an increase, these conditions fall far short of insuring us against disaster if, in the present situation, we enter upon the dangerous and reckless experiment of free, unlimited, and independent silver coinage."

This letter continues to be the chief subject of public interest and comment. The silverites have actually quailed before it. They must not be allowed to rally. Advantage should be taken of the opportunity now presented to drive them to the wall, just as the greenbackers were driven when Gen. Grant vetoed the Inflation Bill. A vigorous campaign for sound money should be started at once, having for its object not merely the prevention of free coinage, but the repeal of the present Silver Law, which law will lead to the silver standard in time just as effectually as free coinage itself. The popular education that suffices for the one will suffice for the other also. The present law is simply a drain on the taxpayers for the benefit of silver-mine owners and speculators. If it does not lead to the silver standard, it is sheer waste. If it does lead to that result, it is a great calamity. As long as it hangs over the business community we shall have distrust, stringency, and hard times. Moreover (and this is a result that has not been sufficiently considered), it piles up in one place a mountain of silver that has got to be disposed of some time. The higher this mountain becomes, the worse will be the landslide eventually—the worse for silver-mine owners and silver-using countries in every quarter of the globe.

The comments which the St. Louis *Republic* is reported by telegraph to have made upon Mr. Cleveland's letter are so remarkable, coming from a newspaper with an established reputation for intelligence, as to suggest the fear that the editor was suffering from temporary aberration of mind when he wrote them. After saying that the letter is "merely the private opinion of a single Democrat," and that it is probable that the "whole matter may be settled by free coinage before 1892," the *Republic* adds:

"But if it is otherwise, the entire matter should be left to the Democratic National Convention. On its adoption of a platform of tariff reform and free coinage, it will be Mr. Cleveland's duty to accept both the nomination and the platform if the party demands his leadership. Certainly if such a demand were made on him and he did accept the nomination, he would be above the suspicion of disloyalty. He would waive his own personal opinion, and stand as sturdily for the party on the minor issue as he has stood on its leading issue of tariff reform."

The attitude of Mr. Cleveland, standing on a platform which advocated a financial policy that he had previously denounced as "reckless and dangerous," and saying that since his party wished it he would consent to look upon it as a "minor issue," and waive it, would be anything but "sturdy." Horace Greeley used to "spit upon the platform" and support its candidate, and he himself, a furious protectionist, tried to run for the Presidency on a tariff-reform platform by referring the tariff for settlement to the Congressional districts; but in none of these "double acts" was he very successful. What the *Republic* proposes for Mr. Cleveland is far more absurd than anything Mr. Greeley ever attempted.

The *Commercial Bulletin* pays its respects to those "friends of silver" who are now proposing a new compromise. It is wonderful how many compromises these people can turn out in a single year. They now talk of a bill for free coinage of American silver only, including in this term silver produced from foreign ores treated in American smelters. The *Bulletin* shows that there is no means of determining what is American silver, since the Mexican border is a great unprotected line, sparsely settled, stretching from ocean to ocean, "and crossed by multitudes of roads, while even on the chief railroads inspection of every package coming in could hardly be so close as to exclude all silver. Nor could small vessels on the Pacific or the Gulf be prevented from landing a load of silver at any time in insignificant ports. If the bullion were worth $1.29 on one side of an imaginary line, and only $1.00 on the other side, it would cross in great quantities, and no power could stop it. Neither could a movement of silver from Europe across the Canadian border be prevented. With cars of all sorts crossing every day, and fishing, coasting, and ferry-boats constantly coming and going, practical exclusion would be impossible." This compromise, the Washington correspondent of the Philadelphia *Press* tells us, is fathered by F. C. Newlands, a very rich man, son-in-law of the late Senator Sharon of Nevada. According to the same authority, Mr. Newlands testified before the Silver-Pool Investigating Committee that the expenses of the silver lobby were paid by the owners of silver mines and silver bullion. He also testified that he bought silver bullion for speculative purposes previous to the passage of the Silver Bill at the last session, and that he is now carrying silver bullion.

It appears that the mortgage companies are waking up to the necessity of making their loans payable in gold. A telegram from Kansas to the *Herald* says that the loan agencies are notifying the mortgageors to pay up, and that the latter, when seeking fresh loans, are confronted with a requirement to sign a gold note. Of course it is optional with them to take the new loans on those terms or not; but there is no money to be had in that quarter on any different terms. This new condition has led to a great outcry among the mortgaged, who, by a remarkable perversion of facts and logic, see a gross injustice in a requirement that they shall pay as good money as they receive. Their conception of good faith and equity implies that a man ought to be able to borrow something that is worth 100 cents gold and pay it back at the rate of 80 or 70 or 50 cents of the same standard. They will not hereafter find lenders of the same mind. Two or three years ago the *Evening Post* made an inquiry among the mortgage companies to see how many of them were in the habit of putting the gold requirement into their notes or bonds. Only one such company was found. If the present scare is not sufficient to bring the remainder of them to their senses, they will deserve to be paid in silver at some future time; that is, to lose 20, or 30, or 50 per cent. of their money. In California, where it is supposed that all persons are theoretically silver-men, all contracts for the loan of money, whether mortgages or ordinary notes of hand, are made payable specifically in gold. In politics these interesting people are strongly in favor of silver, but as a matter of business they are more "gold-buggy" than Wall Street itself.

Why Gov. Hill failed to receive the Watterson letter in November last, when it was sent, remains a mystery. The letter has not been returned to the writer through the Dead-Letter Office, and the only explanation of its loss is a possible defect in the postal delivery service at Albany. The suspicion that there is a defect of this kind there is strengthened by the seeming failure of another important letter to reach the Governor within the past few days. Mr. E. Ellery Anderson, Chairman of the anti-free-silver meeting in Cooper Institute, says he addressed and mailed a letter to the Governor, on Friday week, at the same time that he mailed one to Mr. Cleveland, and that the following passage appeared in both letters, accompanying a formal invitation to attend the meeting: "We are deeply impressed with the gravity of the situation, and earnestly hope that in person or by letter you will give expression to your views, and add the weight of your opinion to the movement against the bill for the free coinage of silver." Mr. Cleveland, as the whole country is aware, received his let-

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ter and acknowledged it, but Mr. Anderson has up to date had no response whatever from the Governor, not even a formal acknowledgment of the invitation with regrets or anything else. Did that letter also fail to reach the Governor? If it did, the postal service at Albany should be investigated forthwith, and a system of checks and receipts arranged between the Albany Post-office and the Executive chamber.

It is not surprising that Gov. Hill should be unwilling to have it thought that he ever received Mr. Watterson's letter, for it is of a kind which no Presidential aspirant would like to have the public think he had received and read without a protest. That it was written and sent appears to be undoubted, and if the Governor never received it through the mails, he has received it now, and is thoroughly cognizant of its contents. It came to the public attention in the very nick of time to bring out in its strongest light the character of the politician to whom it was addressed. It raised once more the question of Gov. Hill's loyalty to Mr. Cleveland in 1888 at the very moment when the Governor was appointing a typical Hill man in place of an honest man whom he was eager to get out of office because he was a friend of Mr. Cleveland. It is small wonder that the Governor's equanimity was violently disturbed by the coincidence.

The appointment and confirmation of Pierce as Superintendent of the Insurance Department recalls another disgraceful fact in the recent annals of the State, viz., the passage by the Legislature and the approval by the Governor of a bill releasing the life-insurance companies from the payment of nearly a million dollars of back taxes due from them to the State, and at the same time repealing the tax law under which those arrears had accrued. Any agency powerful enough to accomplish that feat might, without doubt, get a pliable Superintendent of Insurance appointed by a pliable Governor and confirmed by a pliable Senate. All the shady Republican Senators voted for Pierce, together with two who are not so classed, but who have added nothing to their reputations by their course in this instance. It is in affairs of this kind that personal character is strengthened or weakened, and it is a loss to the State as well as to the individual when any Senator who has enjoyed the full measure of public confidence is found in bad company. The confirmation of Pierce, although not the worst thing that has happened at Albany in late years, is a very disagreeable omen.

The position in which the vote on the Civil-Service Commission clause in the Legislative Appropriation Bill left the Commission as regards funds appears to be this: Messrs. Grosvenor and Cannon led the attack on the Commission by means of points of order, which finally, with the aid of Mr. Payson in the chair, cut down its appropriation to the exact sum allowed for its work when it was first started. Its working force has been since several times increased beyond the allowance made in the organic act, by vote of the House, as in the case of all other departments, without any technical objection from any quarter. The trio had got the Commission seriously crippled when Mr. Dingley of Maine came to the rescue, and moved an additional appropriation of $36,400, to "give effect to and execute the provisions of the act." Against this the Grosvenor point of order was of no avail, and it was carried, leaving the Commission in possession, if the Senate concur, of an income of $53,700, or $1,500 more than it originally asked for. The view that this last appropriation could not be used in employing additional clerks is pronounced absurd by the best parliamentarians in the House, so that it appears as if the enemies of the Commission had been hoist with their own petard.

This whole matter is a striking illustration of the mischief of allowing discredited politicians to come back after their defeat at the polls and continue to legislate as if nothing had happened to them. Both Cannon and Grosvenor are now acting in the House without the smallest responsibility to any one. The voters cannot now inflict any punishment on them for anything they have done or left undone since November 4, and they will enjoy similar immunity between now and March 4. We see the result in Cannon's conduct. Last year he took the very ground in defence of the Commission which he has this year been assailing, and his exact language on that occasion was read to him from the *Congressional Record* on Friday without producing the smallest impression on him. Why did it produce no impression on him? Simply because he is now for the moment out of politics, and can give way without fear of consequences to all the promptings of his corrupt nature. Both he and Grosvenor think they can do as much mischief as they please, especially mischief which will spite the Mugwumps, reformers, professors, and mollycoddles—classes whom all Republican politicians who suffered at the late election hate with a fervent hatred.

Republican politics in Ohio are in a very mixed condition. One faction of the party is desirous of running Mr. McKinley for Governor, and another faction is still as clamorous for Mr. Foraker as it was before his defeat in 1889. Mr. McKinley's recent speech at Toledo was designed to start a boom for his candidacy, but it seems to have been a failure in that respect. Just what the matter was is not stated, but at this distance it looks very much as if he put too heavy a dose of demagogism into his views for even Ohio Republicans to swallow without protest. After repeating his well-known denunciation of cheapness as nasty and unpatriotic, he came out squarely in favor of free silver, thus committing himself in favor of cheap money—a variety of cheapness to which his party in Congress and in the nation is supposed to be antagonistic. It is small wonder that Ohio Republicans are becoming confused when they see their ablest leader, Senator Sherman, combating free-silver delusions in one branch of Congress, while their leader in the other branch takes the stump and tells them that Mr. Cleveland, in opposing the same delusions, is "dishonoring" one of the precious metals. Neither is it surprising that Mr. Foraker, who was supposed to be dead politically, is coming to life again, for Mr. McKinley's Toledo speech makes even Foraker appear rational.

The long struggle over the Senatorship in the South Dakota Legislature ended on Monday in the election of James H. Kyle, a representative of the Farmers' Alliance. The new Senator will be the youngest member of the body, being but thirty-six years old. He is a native of Ohio, a graduate of Oberlin College, and a Congregational clergyman who has officiated in Utah and South Dakota. He was reared a Republican, but had been growing lukewarm in the faith until McKinleyism drove him out of the party. His colleague, Mr. Pettigrew, it will be remembered, voted with Plumb of Kansas and Paddock of Nebraska against the McKinley Bill on its final passage, and it is safe to count upon both Kyle and Pettigrew as supporters of tariff-reform measures in the next Congress. The changes already made in the Senate show that it will be impossible in the Fifty-second Congress to secure a majority in favor of McKinleyism. These changes transfer four seats from the Republicans to the opposition, and reduce the majority of the former from fourteen to six, which will probably be still further reduced when the Illinois contest is ended.

We scarce expected to be taken in earnest when we remarked, three months ago, on the French customs restrictions upon importation of Dr. Koch's lymph, and suggested that though it had been discovered too late for Mr. McKinley to include it in his anti-civilization schedules, it might yet be possible to exclude the lymph from this country, or at least to delay its entrance and increase the burden of the sick, by taxing it as a manufacture of something-or-other otherwise unprovided for. But, according to the *Tribune*, this has been done. A package of the lymph, "addressed to Dr. Winzen, No. 96 John Street, came through the German mail recently, and was seized by the postal customs officials. The appraisers put a value of $6 upon the medicine, upon which duties of 25 per cent. were assessed. The doctor paid this amount and took the lymph away. There was less than a tablespoonful of the compound."

Mr. Sherman made, in the Committee of the Whole, an amendment to the Copyright Bill which the Senate has since rejected, and which would certainly have been likely to lead to delay, and as drawn would have abolished American domestic copyright, allowing the importation of foreign editions of copyrighted books on paying the regular tariff duties. Nevertheless it is a good amendment in itself. All prohibition of the importation of editions of a book which is not obscene and which has been honestly come by, is in our

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day an anachronism. The American publisher is amply protected against foreign competition by the tariff, and if there be any number of persons, however small, who would prefer, for typographical or other reasons, the foreign to the domestic copy, they ought to be allowed to purchase it. We observe that Mr. Vance of North Carolina vigorously attacked all international or other copyright, quoting in support of his contention Tweed's old friend, the editor of the *Sun*, as "a very high authority in matters pertaining to literature," in the interest of the "poor and ambitious boy," in whose hands he wished to place a "cheap book." And yet would it be possible to do a greater injury to a poor and ambitious boy than to furnish him, at the very outset of his career, as one of the instruments of success, with a book whose cheapness was due to its having been stolen? Why should an American boy be more indifferent to the way in which he gets his books than to the way in which he gets his trousers? There are no trousers so cheap to-day as stolen trousers, but what honest man would tell a child that if his trousers were cheap, it made no difference where they came from? Trousers are just as necessary to a boy's success in life as books. No poor boy in America has ever achieved wealth or distinction without trousers. Mr. Vance himself is a shining example of what trousers may do for a man; but he is far from believing that trousers may be obtained in any manner whatsoever, and that the tailor's rights should never stand in the way of the wearer's necessities.

The Republicans in the Connecticut Legislature have at last taken the first step towards a rational settlement of the controversy over the State offices which has been going on for more than a month past. The House of Representatives, which is controlled by that party, has adopted a resolution declaring that, whereas the differences of opinion between the two branches concern the peace, good order, and welfare of the State, and these differences depend largely upon questions of constitutional and statute law, the House declares its willingness to unite with the Senate in the passage of a joint resolution requesting the advice of the judges of the Supreme Court on all the questions of law involved in these differences, and pledges itself, in case the Senate will join in such reference, to take such action, and pass, in concurrence with the Senate, such legislation as may be necessary to carry into effect the opinion of the judges. The Democrats have all along favored the idea of an appeal to the courts, and no reason is visible why the Senate, which they control, should not join in the reference proposed by the House. It is earnestly to be hoped, however, that the Legislature will not rest content with securing a settlement of the pending controversy. This long and discreditable struggle over the State officers is the outgrowth of an antiquated Constitution, and a recurrence of the same trouble will always be possible so long as the provisions of that instrument respecting those offices remain unchanged. If in any Southern State there were a system under which 42,000 voters had 133 members in the lower branch of the Legislature, while 92,000 voters had but 117 members, it would be denounced by Connecticut Republicans as an outrage. It is no less an outrage when such a system exists in Connecticut.

Mr. Hiram Howard has introduced in the Rhode Island Legislature a Corrupt Practices Bill somewhat more stringent in its provisions than a similar one which he advocated in the same body a year ago. It prohibits the contribution of money in any form by any person, agent, committee, company, association, or corporation, to any person or organization of any kind for use in elections, and forbids the receipt of such contributions by anybody for such use. Every candidate for office who expends more than fifty dollars in any way in an election is required to file, within ten days after election, a sworn statement of the use made of it, and the same requirement is made of agents and committees disbursing more than $50. Penalty of violation of the law is fixed at a fine not exceeding $1,000 or imprisonment not exceeding one year, or both. Any person testifying to violations is granted immunity from the penalties, and any person supplying testimony which leads to conviction, may recover in an action of debt from the person convicted the amount named in the forbidden transaction.

A telegram from Bahia, Brazil, to the *World* says that the merchants at that place are by no means pleased with the Reciprocity Treaty negotiated by their Government with Mr. Blaine. On the contrary, they view it with the "greatest dissatisfaction," and intend to use their influence to prevent its ratification. The new Constitution of Brazil has not yet been adopted, and no treaty can be ratified before that event takes place. The Bahia merchants find that they are no better off under the treaty than they were before, since the free admission of coffee, their chief staple, to the United States, has been going on for some twenty years, and the free admission of raw sugar, which begins on the 1st of April, applies to all sugar-producing countries as well as to Brazil. Moreover, they do not see why the United States should have an advantage in trade as against Great Britain. There is no treaty between Brazil and Great Britain containing the "most-favored-nation clause," but there is nothing to prevent the making of such a treaty, or a Reciprocity Treaty in terms like that between Brazil and the United States. The resident English merchants have been greatly stirred up by the Blaine-Fonseca Treaty, and are moving decisively to secure like advantages for themselves.

The Liberal Unionists in England are vigorously engaged in what would be called in American slang "working the morality racket" against the Home-Rulers; that is, they have risen far above the murky political atmosphere, in dealing with the Irish question, and dwell now in the serener air of pure righteousness. Those of them who can get over Parnell's adultery—and they are not many—are particularly afflicted by his admission to the Parnell Commission that he had told a falsehood (which, curiously enough, turned out not to be a falsehood after all) on a certain occasion, with the intent to deceive the House of Commons. "To think," they say, "that we were on the verge of turning over the Government of Ireland to a man who had lied to the House of Commons." But they are very apt to suggest that Gladstone, on the whole, everything considered, is a greater liar than Parnell; and Lord Salisbury the other day at Cambridge, discussing the conflict of veracity between the two about what passed at Hawarden, declared that Parnell was the more worthy of belief. This has revived—we say revived—the old question, "Is Lord Salisbury himself worthy of belief, for has he not done a far more awful thing than lie to the House of Commons—lied to the House of Lords? Think of lying to the House of Lords!" In other words, the wicked Home-Rulers are recalling the fact that in 1878 Lord Salisbury was asked by Lord Grey, in the House of Lords, whether "there was any truth in the statement which had appeared in the *Globe* last Friday as to the terms agreed on between this country and Russia." That statement was that a secret memorandum had been agreed upon between Lord Salisbury and the Russian Minister, settling in advance the chief points in the Treaty of Berlin afterwards concluded, and thus making the subsequent debates at the conference between Lord Beaconsfield and Russia a piece of acting intended to humbug the British public, and give Beaconsfield the air of a valiant defender of British honor. To this question Lord Salisbury answered: "The statement to which the noble Lord refers, and other statements I have seen, are wholly unauthentic, and are not deserving of the confidence of your Lordships' House." In a few days it appeared that the memorandum actually existed when Lord Salisbury said this, and that the *Globe's* version of it was substantially correct. The best of the story has to come. After he had made this insulting speech about Mr. Gladstone, the Manchester *Guardian* recalled the memorandum story, and some one wrote to Lord Salisbury to know if it were true. His secretary answered: "I have to say in reply that you may deny the statement, so far as it refers to Lord Salisbury, without hesitation." As the matter is wholly of public record, this permission to "deny without hesitation", must be meant as a permission to his correspondent to incur, if he pleases, the pains and penalties attaching in nearly all religions to unrepented and unconfessed mendacity. But think of the government of Ireland being now in the hands of a man who has told a falsehood for the purpose of deceiving the House of Lords!

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MR. CLEVELAND'S LETTER.

No small scrap of writing in recent years has produced so much commotion and attracted such general attention as ex-President Cleveland's brief letter to the President of the Reform Club on the silver question. It comes before the public at a critical juncture. A bill is pending in the House of Representatives for the free coinage of silver, *i. e.*, to establish the silver standard in place of the gold standard. This bill has been opposed by all except a handful of the Republicans in the Senate, and is now opposed by nearly all the Republicans of the House. It was supported by all except a handful of Democrats in the Senate, and is now supported by a majority, probably a large majority, of those in the House. There is nothing in the last national platforms of the two parties that warrants this distinction. On the contrary, the Republican platform is more silverish than the Democratic, for, while the latter is absolutely silent on the question, the former contains a paragraph suggesting that the Republicans are better friends of silver than the Democrats. That paragraph says:

"The Republican party is in favor of the use of both gold and silver as money, *and condemns the policy of the Democratic Administration in its efforts to demonetize silver.*"

In spite of these public outgivings, the Republican party turns up in Congress as the party demonetizing silver, and the Democrats turn up on the opposite side. Silver, be it remarked, is demonetized as long as it is not received at the mint in any quantity and coined for and on behalf of the persons presenting it for the purpose. Upon this point Mr. Bland is right, and always has been right. Silver dollars are at present a part of the fiduciary currency of the country. They are redeemed by the Government in gold just as the greenbacks are redeemed. They possess an intrinsic value of 80 cents each. The remaining 20 cents is fiduciary. Therefore the Republican national platform really made it an accusation against the Democrats that they had, up to that time, prevented the free coinage of silver. They had prevented what all except a mere handful of Republicans in both houses of Congress are now trying with all their might to prevent. This seems to show again what lying and blackguard documents national platforms may be, when constructed by "scurvy politicians who seem to see the things they do not."

As long as the Democrats were charged with the responsibility of the national finances, they were careful and conservative. As soon as the Republicans got the reins of power they became careful and conservative. They nevertheless passed the law of last July more than doubling the Government's purchases of silver. They did this, however, in order to avoid something worse, for the Democrats, being no longer charged with the responsibility for the safety of the nation in its public and private finances, were crowding them with a free-coinage bill. After all is said, in and out of platforms and in and out of office, the Democrats are more of a silver party than the Republicans. When, as sometimes happens, the Republicans pretend to be more silverish than the Democrats, they are not truthful. And this remark applies to Mr. McKinley's speech at Toledo on Thursday evening, in which he said:

"During all of his [Cleveland's] years at the head of the Government he was dishonoring one of our precious metals, one of our own great products; discrediting silver and enhancing the price of gold. He endeavored even before his inauguration to office to stop the coinage of silver dollars, and afterward, and to the end of his Administration, persistently used his power to that end. He was determined to contract the circulating medium and demonetize one of the coins of commerce, limit the volume of money among the people, make money scarce and therefore dear. He would have increased the value of money and diminished the value of everything else—money the master, everything else its servant. He was not thinking of 'the poor' then. He had left 'their side.' He was not 'standing forth in their defence.' Cheap coats, cheap labor, and dear money; the sponsor and promoter of these professing to stand guard over the welfare of the poor and lowly—was there ever more glaring inconsistency or reckless assumption?"

That speech of McKinley's has the brassy ring of the demagogue as distinct as anything ever uttered by any silverite on either side of politics.

Well, things had come to this pass, that the great gains made by the Democrats on the tariff question were put in jeopardy by the incoming of a new issue. Those Democrats who talk about settling the silver question now, so as not to have it in the way in 1892, are simpletons. They assume that changing the standard of value from gold to silver, and unsettling all contracts and changing the terms of all business undertakings and the purchasing power of wages is a slight thing, that it has no consequences that can project themselves into the next Presidential campaign, that it is a summer cloud that may overcome us without our special wonder. Never was there a more prodigious mistake. The truth is, that a free-coinage bill passed and put into effect now would obliterate every other issue from the political field for years to come. We are not now considering the merits or demerits of the measure in itself. We merely say that it is charged with dynamite to such an extent that the McKinley Bill would disappear from the field of political strife in a twinkling. The Democrats would leave the firm and assured ground on which they now stand to take a leap in the dark.

Undoubtedly Mr. Cleveland had these things clearly in view when he wrote his letter to Mr. Anderson. He has a habit of saying exactly what he thinks on fitting occasions. Aside from the gift of political courage, he has sufficient political sagacity to see that it is most unsafe to drop a good piece of meat in order to dive after something else that appears to be in sight but may turn out to be an optical illusion. There has been much vaporing over this letter in the South and West, but it will be of short duration. The net result will be that foretold by Congressman Peel of Arkansas to a *Tribune* reporter, viz.:

"The letter shows that Mr. Cleveland has lots of courage, and that he has no disposition to deceive any one. The position he takes is not a surprise; it merely clears away the doubts of those who thought he might have changed his views after a more careful study of the question. He holds the same views still. The letter will strengthen him in New York and throughout the East. It will probably do him some damage in the South and West, but his bold stand on the tariff has endeared him to the hearts of the Western and Southern people. They would rather vote for him than for any other living man. They will respect his frankness and courage in maintaining his personal convictions, even if they do not agree with him, and they will probably be for him anyhow."

THE BARRUNDIA DEBATE.

No better statement of the case against the Navy Department could be made than Mr. Dalzell's on behalf of Commander Reiter. Mr. Lodge, speaking on behalf of the Administration, acknowledged that San José was a Guatemalan port, but pleaded that it was not much of a port, as the coast at that point was "straight as a rule." Barrundia's "character was none of the best"—"probably he had led a bad life"; but he was apparently only pursued as a political refugee. It would therefore have been "chivalrous" in Commander Reiter to have gone out and offered him an asylum on board his ship. Moreover, Commander Reiter ought to have been on board the *Acapulco* when the officers came off to execute the warrant, instead of staying in the *Thetis*. He ought to have been roused by the sound of the pistol-shots; and when the *Acapulco* hauled down the Guatemalan flag and hoisted the stars and stripes, he ought to have regarded it "as a signal of distress," although no such signal is known to the signal code. It was "a disgrace to have a man shot down in that way and under these circumstances"—these being the circumstances: On hearing from the Guatemalan commandant that he had come to arrest him,

"Gen. Barrundia said 'Bueno,' and immediately reached for a revolver which was concealed under a mattress in the upper bunk, and fired two or three shots through the doorway between them. The Captain and the commandant beat a hasty retreat aft, taking refuge in an unoccupied state-room. They were followed by Barrundia, firing wildly. He stopped and fired several shots into the state-room where the captain and commandant were concealed. He then apparently ran forward and crossed through the 'social hall' to the starboard side, where he fired forward and aft, then crossed to the port side again and started forward, when he fell. The detectives, as near as I could determine, ran out of the 'social hall' and forward when Barrundia first commenced firing, but some time during the mêlée returned and began discharging their revolvers at him."

That is, it somehow disgraces the American Navy if a man resisting lawful arrest (Mr. Lodge does not deny the legality) on board an American merchant vessel, draws a revolver and begins to run round the ship "firing wildly" at all persons within sight, and finally falls under the return fire of the detectives whom he is trying to murder. We have "never refused asylum to political refugees," and ought not to begin now, but not one of the authorities Mr. Lodge cited on this point makes it incumbent on American commanders to pursue refugees with offers of asylum. Barrundia did not ask for asylum. He refused to see Commander Reiter on board of the *Acapulco*, and yet it was Commander Reiter's duty to go out to sea to meet him and urge him to take refuge with him.

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Nothing so ridiculous as this has yet come up in any of these controversies. All the precedents relating to asylum for foreign refugees assume that the asylum is to be asked for. No consul or naval commander has ever before been censured for not inviting a foreign runaway to take shelter on board his ship. Whenever they have been hauled over the coals, it has been either for totally refusing it *on demand*, or for according it too freely on demand. Mr. Lodge quoted our Minister Morris's giving shelter to Frenchmen in danger of their lives during the Reign of Terror in Paris, and the Koszta case at Smyrna, neither of which had the remotest resemblance to the Barrundia case. He cited also a passage from Hall's 'International Law,' showing that captains of men-of-war ought to give shelter to political refugees, but was indiscreet enough to cite also the following qualification:

"He [the fugitive] should not be sought out or invited, but if he appears at the side of the ship and asks admittance, he need not be turned away."

Mr. Lodge's mode of making this qualification is very curious. "This refers," says he, "to political fugitives escaping from the shore. They ought not to be sought out or invited," but the case is very different if they come on ships. In this latter dictum, we need hardly say, he cites neither Hall nor any other authority. There is none. This is all the law he gets into his argument. The rest is commendation of "chivalry" and high spirit and daring on the part of our naval officers. Unconsciously, doubtless, his whole statement was highly apologetic, but in making it apologetic, and thus admitting that the Barrundia case was a doubtful one, with a great deal to be said on both sides, he passed an implied condemnation of the strongest kind on the conduct of the Secretary of the Navy in inflicting a severe and even abusive reprimand on an officer like Commander Reiter, of thirty years' unblemished standing. Naval officers in foreign ports have to be governed by international law or executive precedents and instructions. No other rules for their guidance can be given them. They cannot be sent abroad with general directions to be brave and chivalrous, and to take responsibility enough but not too much, for this would put us in constant danger of war with foreign Powers in some distant quarter of the globe, through somebody's rashness, or irritability, or want of judgment. They have to be, always have been, and always will be, tied down by books and codes, binding alike on the cautious and the bold, the cool and the choleric, on teetotalers and heavy drinkers. Without this our navy would soon be a floating bedlam. The fact that Mr. Lodge has not been able to cite against Commander Reiter a single precedent or usage disregarded, a single rule or instruction violated, is, therefore, an implied censure on the Navy Department, almost painful in its gravity, coming as it does from its own champion. The Department has inflicted serious punishment on an officer of good repute for an offence which it cannot define, or explain, or illustrate, except by a series of generalities and assumptions which could not possibly be used in the government of a military organization. The enlargement of the duty of granting asylum in public ships on demand into the duty of cruising in search of foreign fugitives and forcing asylum on them without demand, is almost a sign of administrative frenzy.

One of the most curious features in the debate was the appearance of Mr. Boutelle of Maine as an uncompromising critic of the Navy Department. He denied the Secretary's right to inflict such punishment as had been inflicted on Commander Reiter except by sentence of court-martial. "He would not have written the letters addressed by the Secretary to Commander Reiter, and if he had written them, he would not have published them before their delivery." He asked whether if the British mail steamer, the *Trent*, had carried Mason and Slidell into the port of New York, en route to England, we would not have arrested them; and whether if a British man-of-war lying in the East River had attempted to interfere, we would have tolerated the interference for one moment; and he closed with the following most rational and weighty remark:

"In conclusion, I desire to say that I have little sympathy with the idea that the principal duty of the United States Government and its navy is to send its ships around the globe to hunt up the political conspirators, revolutionists, anarchists, and nihilists of other countries in order to aid them in their attempts to overthrow established and orderly governments, or to protect them from the just punishment of crimes not only against friendly nations, but against humanity. That sort of business does not seem to me the most glorious to which we can devote the American flag."

This is an observation which ought to have come from Mr. Lodge, considering his training and antecedents, rather than from Mr. Boutelle; but apparently no job the Administration can assign Mr. Lodge now does violence either to his tastes or his principles.

QUAY'S ANSWER.

MR. QUAY has at last answered the charges made against him in the *Evening Post*, nearly nine months after their date. Unfortunately, the answer is a simple denial, such as is made by every malefactor who is not taken in the act. Such denials, as is well known, have no value either in law or in morals. They have to be fortified by the production of some other kind of evidence. Mr. Quay produces no such evidence with regard to any of the more serious parts of the accusation against him.

Did space permit, it would be easy to show the way in which he proposes to make his escape, by printing in parallel columns the two leading charges made by the *Evening Post*, with Quay's answer to each. By those who make the comparison it will be observed that he himself corroborates the leading points in the first charge, namely, his being engaged in a joint stock speculation with Walters, the State Cashier; the abstraction by Walters of a considerable sum from the Treasury to be used in this speculation; the loss of the money; and the borrowing of $100,000 by Quay from Senator Cameron to make good his share of the loss. The only attempt he makes to extricate himself is an insinuation—not an assertion—that Walters took the money without Quay's knowledge or consent; but he does not explain why if Walters, without his knowledge or consent, was guilty of embezzlement, he (Quay) felt bound to make good the deficiency by borrowing an enormous sum from a friend without security. Now Walters is dead. He committed suicide. He cannot throw any light on the transaction. But there are two persons living who can—Senator Don Cameron and Wayne MacVeagh. They were both present at the interview at Quay's house at which the money was advanced by one of them. Neither will speak unless called upon by Quay. Both, we are sure, will do so if called upon by Quay. Why does not Quay require them to tell all they remember of the transaction which took place at his house early in May, 1880, and which is described with some minuteness in the *Evening Post's* pamphlet? They can, if Quay is innocent of all share in that defalcation, set him right at once. Nobody else can. Quay's uncorroborated testimony in the matter is worthless. As long as he refrains from producing them as witnesses, we must consider him guilty of having aggravated the offence of embezzlement by the offence of prevarication.

His mode of dealing with the second principal charge is still more unsatisfactory. It will be seen, by reference to the above pamphlet, that the *Evening Post* accused him of a second raid on the State Treasury, in having when State Treasurer taken $400,000 of the State funds himself, this time without a confederate, in order to enable him to take part in a speculation in the bonds of the North Chicago Street Railroad Company, which were offered to him on favorable terms. The above "sum of money," said the *Evening Post*, "Quay coolly took out of the State Treasury and sent it to Philadelphia, where it was deposited in the People's Bank, the depository of the horse-railroad syndicate, and so paid for the bonds. The President of that bank was and is W. H. Kemble (the author of the epigram 'Addition, Division and Silence'), to whom reference has already been made." It will be observed that the *Evening Post* did not say he took "securities" of any description out of the State Treasury. It said he took cash—that is, $400,000 in checks, drafts, or lawful money. Now read his answer to this:

"It is charged that again I used moneys belonging to the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania to purchase bonds or stock or both of a Chicago street railway. I was invited by friends in Philadelphia to join in the purchase of street-railway property in Chicago, and did so, borrowing the money upon my own collateral from the People's Bank in Philadelphia. I stood upon the same footing with the other gentlemen concerned, and it was a perfectly straightforward business transaction, and had no connection in any way with any public fund or public interest. The charge that securities belonging to the State of Pennsylvania were used in the transaction is false and impossible of truth. The only negotiable securities held by the State of Pennsylvania are the registered bonds of the United States, transferable only on the books

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of the National Treasury by the Auditor General, Secretary of the Commonwealth, and State Treasurer, acting conjointly, after having filed a certificate with the Governor in their official character."

Now, where did he get "collateral" at that period for a loan of $400,000, seeing that such collateral must have been worth at least $440,000?

It is not necessary to pursue this examination further. The other charges are comparatively insignificant. It is not surprising that, after listening to his defence, "the Senate went on with its routine business as if there had been no interruption, and the visitors left the galleries with an air of disappointment." No judgment on this notorious profligate, however, will be full or satisfactory which does not take into account the fact that Mr. John Wanamaker, our Postmaster-General, a leading business man of Philadelphia and proprietor of the Bethany Sunday-school, knowing all about Quay, raised and handed over to him, to be expended without vouchers, the largest election fund ever seen in the United States, and got, apparently in return therefor, a seat in the Cabinet of the President of the United States.

A GAP IN PRACTICAL EDUCATION.

A WIDESPREAD discussion of one of the most important and most difficult problems of education, in elementary as well as post-graduate departments, has lately been provoked by the action of several dissimilar educational bodies in different parts of the country. One line of argument, however, which may be derived from a consideration of facts, has not yet been as fully presented as, from its practical bearings, it deserves to be.

Every one, or at least every one whose sanity upon social topics would pass unchallenged, admits the educative influence of contact and intercourse between persons of opposite sex at some age or other. If not in early or immature periods, at least when years are ripe for it, the influence of the masculine on the feminine mind, or the reverse, is held to be good for each. But, owing to the present largely prevailing system of separate education, and to certain inevitable conditions of society, two classes of women who are already important factors in the community, and who promise to become increasingly influential as time goes on, are practically shut off during the most plastic and some of the most active years of life from opportunities for free and natural interchange of thought and opinion with members of the other sex.

The first of these two classes consists of graduates of women's colleges who immediately upon leaving college become teachers in girls' schools of the higher grades. The women's college necessarily practises, more or less strictly, a system of seclusion for its students. It has a staff of celibate instructors living within its own boundaries. It follows from the nature of the case that students are largely restricted to the influence of the feminine intellect, both within and without the lecture-room. It is not assuming too much to say that such men as find their way as professors to the women's colleges are, with a few notable exceptions, among the most inexperienced of their profession, who are using the post in hand as a stepping-stone towards the first vacancy they can fill in a non-feminine institution. It is, moreover, questionable whether, with the most earnest and honorable intentions, such instructors, themselves probably fresh from unmixed classes of their own sex, can put forth their best efforts and accomplish their best work in classes in which there is not a single member of the order they have been accustomed to. The mind of a man must, under such circumstances, be incapable of the full tone and vigor it would have if he were working at least partially with men.

From the homogeneous mental atmosphere of the college the graduate who is to become a teacher makes but a single step into a class-room of girls. Her associates in teaching are women who, like herself, are debarred even the masculine element of boys, "to bring outside life into the school, to know what is going on in the world, to illustrate the lesson from what happens in the streets and on the wharves." Naturally, young teachers can seldom be fortunate enough to find positions near enough to their homes to be able to enjoy the companionship of fathers and brothers. More generally they are forced to live where they are dependent upon their own resources for recreation and pleasure. However clever and conscientious their teaching may be, it is impossible not to believe that past and present conditions have developed a one-sidedness of outlook, from which pupils, in their turn, must suffer in the development of mind and character.

The second class that must be hampered in practical usefulness by the isolation of the sexes in education is that of the women doctors who are trained in medical colleges for women, and who "set up" as practitioners in places where they likewise are dissociated from home ties. Such practitioners, as the friends of medical education for women repeatedly remind us, are constantly called upon to act not merely as physical, but also as spiritual or moral advisers of the young and middle-aged of their own sex. It is evident that in many palpably probable cases they would be better fitted to fulfil the latter function if circumstances had given them a nearer acquaintance with the mental and moral peculiarities of the other half of the human race.

If a man who has adopted teaching as a profession marries, he still goes on with his work. Not so a woman. When she marries, she resigns her post, which is filled by a perpetual supply of celibates. In the case of the male members of the other professions the feminine element is seldom long lacking. Doctors, indeed, proverbially marry young, there being a definitely recognized professional advantage in their doing so. But, matrimony apart, young men are free at any period of their lives to seek the society of women in their own homes. Young women are of necessity without this resource as regards men. It is worth while to consider whether the interests of society would not be better served if more normal and extended culture were given to large bodies of able women by a broader and more consistent system of education.

BALKAN PROBLEMS.

EUROPE is at peace, but the Eastern Question survives to plague European diplomacy, and ominous mutterings from the Balkan Peninsula reach us in fragmentary cable reports of a plot to overthrow Ferdinand of Bulgaria, the serious illness of Alexander of Servia, the fall of his ministry, a rising of Albanians, and the wholesale expulsion of Nihilists from Bulgaria.

Of these, the last report is probably the most significant, as it denotes a change in the attitude of Premier Stambuloff towards the Russian Government, which demanded recently of Bulgaria the extradition of thirteen Nihilists supposed to be plotting against Russia on Bulgarian soil with the knowledge and connivance of the Bulgarian Government. The Russian note was delivered by the representative of Germany at Sofia, as Russia has never recognized Ferdinand's Government, and M. de Giers reinforced his demand by a circular note addressed to the Cabinets of Berlin, Vienna, Rome, and London, calling attention to the harboring of Nihilists by Bulgaria. To this note M. Grecoff, the Bulgarian Minister of Foreign Affairs, returned a verbal answer, whose firmness was explainable only on the assumption that his course was prompted by Austria, in spite of her having joined the other great Powers in formally approving Russia's action. After premising that Bulgaria would never consciously lend her aid to the furtherance of criminal plots against any foreign government, M. Grecoff called attention to the vagueness of Russia's charges, to the fact that several of the supposed Nihilists were entirely unknown in Bulgaria, flatly refused to surrender naturalized and peaceable Bulgarians, no matter what their political antecedents in Russia had been, and neatly turned the tables against Russia by pointing out the well-known fact that the Russian Government not only harbored but rewarded Bulgarian Nihilists, like Grueff, Bendereff, and Zankoff, who had been engaged in the kidnapping of Prince Alexander. The Bulgarian Government, he said, had only one Russian criminal in its employ, the historian Dragomanoff, whose crime, in Russian eyes, consisted in his having published several works in the dialect of Little Russia. If M. Stambuloff has since, after all, decided to surrender the unfortunate refugees who have hitherto enjoyed Bulgarian hospitality, it is very evident that the journey of the Austrian heir-presumptive, the Archduke Franz Ferdinand, to the Court of St. Petersburg, has borne fruit, and that a hint to Bulgaria was the direct result of the *rapprochement* effected between Russia and Austria.

Russia, in winning Austria over to her definition of the term "Nihilist," has thus virtually secured a vindication of her course in the Lutzki affair, which during the last few weeks has been so much discussed in the European papers. Lutzki was a Russian

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engineer who had for some time been quietly living in Bulgaria, and who recently went to Constantinople, where he was arrested by Russian police agents and thence transported to Russia without process of law of any kind. In spite of the storm of indignation excited by this violation of international law, Russia has never deigned to particularize her charges against the unfortunate engineer, who, it is announced, has since been sent to Tobolsk. Encouraged by her success in this undertaking, Russia asked Turkey for the surrender of the Mingrelian Prince Nakatchidze, a former associate of Lutzki, and suspected of having been implicated in the railway accident at Borki in which the Czar nearly lost his life. Nakatchidze, in spite of being a naturalized Turkish subject, was arrested by the Turkish authorities, but soon set at liberty, as Russia failed to make out a case against him. That the final expulsion of all Nihilists from Bulgarian territory will incline Russia more favorably towards Prince Ferdinand is, however, altogether improbable. The very successes which his Government has recently achieved, the readiness with which Bulgaria met the demand for the payment of a war debt suddenly sprung upon her by Russia, and the ease with which she negotiated a loan in Vienna, have only served to exasperate the Russian Government, and it will hardly be unfair to connect the reported conspiracy to overthrow Ferdinand with Russia's undisguised hostility to his Government.

Thanks chiefly to the services of ex-Queen Natalie, Russian influence continues to shape, with much less reserve, the destinies of the kingdom over which Alexander, like his father, the profligate Milan, and his great-uncle Michael, was called as a mere boy to reign. Natalie was the daughter of a Russian colonel—M. Ristitch, the principal Regent, now studiously addresses her as "Mme. Natalie de Ketchko"—and she has always shown herself the willing tool of the Russian Government. Her precise status since her divorce from Milan has never been definitely settled. She entertains the bitterest feelings against M. Ristitch, whom she charges with having been instrumental in procuring Milan's divorce; and she has refused to avail herself of his offer to allow her to pay two or three visits annually to her son, during which time she should reside in the royal palace and be treated with royal honors. She defies the power of the Regents, and continues to reside in Belgrade, holding court in an ostentatious manner, and demonstratively acting as the patroness of a Pan-Servian ladies' association, which has branches in all the principal towns of Old Servia and Montenegro, and whose political aims are undisguised. Her injudicious behavior has alienated from her her former political friends, the Progressists, who had sided with her in her quarrels with her former husband.

The fall of the Servian Ministry was brought about by the opposition of the Radicals to the press law which the Minister of the Interior, M. Gyaya, himself a former Radical, urged the Skupshtina to pass. An amusing illustration of parliamentary government, as understood in Servia, was the introduction of a bill by the Radicals requiring Ministers on assuming office to deposit a certain sum as a guarantee of good behavior, the whole or part of it to be forfeited by delinquencies while in office—a crude but well-meant device on the part of the peasant members of the Skupshtina to imbue the Ministers with a greater sense of their responsibility towards the country than they have hitherto shown.

Commercial interests have of late been paramount in the relations between the European Powers and Rumania, the most progressive of the Balkan States. The Government of King Charles, after having introduced the gold standard in the monetary affairs of Rumania and executed a number of important public works, is on the point of concluding a commercial treaty with Austria-Hungary. The personal affiliations of the King and his literary wife, "Carmen Sylva," have been instrumental in ranging Rumania on the side of the Triple Alliance as against Russia; but even in Bucharest, as the *Indépendance Roumaine* pointed out, Russian emissaries are busily at work. Considerable uneasiness has been created in that city by the recent arrival of the notorious Capt. Bendereff, who was the principal leader in the kidnapping of Alexander of Battenberg, and who is now in the military service of Russia. The continued presence in that city of M. Hitrovo, the Russian Minister, whose connection with the conspiracy of Major Panitza and other disturbances in the Balkan States is well known, is likewise a source of alarm to all patriotic Rumanians who desire to see their country freed from Russian intrigues.

To all these signs of Russian aggressiveness in the Balkan States on the one hand and national self-assertion on the other, the lethargy and declining influence of Turkey form a striking contrast. She has of late been meekly engaged in making concessions to the countries over which she once exercised suzerainty, and trying to live in peace with the rest of the Peninsula; now appeasing Bulgaria by the appointment of Bulgarian bishops in Macedonia; now attempting to satisfy Servia, exasperated by the assassination of her Vice-Consul at Pristina, and all the while manœuvring to postpone the payment of the remainder of an old war debt due to Russia. Whether the amnesty granted to the Cretan insurgents will permanently pacify that part of her domain may well be doubted. Nor can reliance be placed on the effusive professions of loyalty to the Sultan emanating from some of the functionaries of Armenia, so lately the scene of bloody riots. Indeed, their right to speak for Armenia at all is totally denied in a proclamation issued and secretly circulated by the "Central Committee for Armenian Reforms," in which this passage occurs: "If the Armenians were invited freely to express their wishes without being threatened with death or banishment, far from signing, they would spurn with their feet, this infamous address presented to the Sultan by shameless traitors in exchange for the imperial favors, and would express full clearly their disdain for and hatred of the despotic government of the Sultan, and their firm desire to throw off its odious yoke."

GENERAL SHERMAN.

Gen. William Tecumseh Sherman came of the well-known colonial family of that name which was settled at Boston before 1636. Several of them removed to Connecticut very early, and became prominent in the history of that colony. His grandfather, Judge Taylor Sherman of Norwalk, was one of the Connecticut Commissioners to organize for settlement the "fire lands" in Ohio, a reservation appropriated to the sufferers by the coast raids of Arnold and the British in the Revolution. This led to a family migration to Ohio, and Charles R. Sherman, the General's father, fixed his home at Lancaster, in the central part of the State, a pretty town in a lovely region. He attained distinction as a practising lawyer at the local bar, where Thomas Ewing and Henry Stanbery were leaders. The fact that the Indian Chief Tecumseh was recognized as a man of great qualities cannot have better proof than in Charles Sherman's naming his son William after him, in the frontier region where the qualities of the red man usually remembered are those which excite horror and alarm. The same fact shows the large-minded candor of the elder Sherman.

The General was born in 1820, being about midway in a large family of eleven children. His father was Judge of the Supreme Court of Ohio from 1821 till his sudden death in 1829 from over-exposure to the sun in travelling the circuit in June. His accumulations had been small, and the mother, Mary Hoyt Sherman, had need of all the energy characteristic of the colonial families to meet the burden thrown upon her. The hearty good neighborhood of such settlements made her friends efficient in finding means of livelihood for the growing children, and William T. was adopted into the family of Mr. Ewing, whose daughter, Ellen Boyle Ewing, he afterwards married. He had the advantage of education in a good academy at Lancaster, and was appointed a cadet in the Military Academy at West Point in 1836. He graduated in 1840, being sixth in a class of forty-three. He was commissioned in the army as a subaltern in the Third Artillery and was immediately sent to Florida, where the Seminole war was dragging towards its slow termination.

His service till the Mexican war was in the Southern Atlantic and Gulf States, including duties which took him over the ground in which his campaign of Atlanta and the March to the Sea afterwards occurred, and he gained what proved to be invaluable topographical knowledge of a region of which there were no maps worthy of the name. He was at home on recruiting service when the war with Mexico began in 1846, and immediately applied for work in the field. He was ordered to New York, assigned to Company F in his regiment, and with his battery was shipped in the store-ship *Lexington* to California by way of Cape Horn. The ship visited Rio Janeiro and Valparaiso on the route, reaching Monterey after a long voyage of almost 200 days. Mexico was too busy with the invasion by Scott and Taylor to make any strong effort to hold the province of Upper California, and it fell into our hands with the merest show of opposition. There was no fighting for Sherman to do, but the organization of a new dependency was thrown upon the military and naval officers,

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and he had a very active share in that work. His energy and strong business sense secured for him the selection as Acting Adjutant-General of the Department, and he rode and sailed from one end of California to the other in his active performance of all sorts of duties connected with the Administration. Gens. Halleck and Ord were among his intimates of his own age, and Hooker served with him a little later.

The discovery of gold, the wild rush of men of all countries to the mines, the submerging of the old Spanish population by the newcomers, the organization of a new State and its admission to the Union, made a wonderful experience for the young soldier, though not strictly of the military kind. Friends in the East tempted him to leave the army and embark in a banking business at San Francisco, in which he spent several years, managing the capital of others with a sturdy honesty and good sense which carried the house safe through the panic of 1855, and established for himself the reputation of a safe and conservative man of affairs, who kept his personal interests strictly subordinate to the trusts which were put in his hands. The period of financial depression culminated in 1857, and Sherman, oblivious of himself, advised the capitalists with whom he was associated to close a business which seemed to have risks disproportioned to any profits which could be realized without rash speculation.

Thrown again upon his own resources, a year or two was spent in tentative efforts to open a new professional or business career, and in 1859 he was invited to become Superintendent of a State Military Academy established in Louisiana. He accepted the position, full of faith that the threats of civil war which were already rife at the South would amount to nothing, and that a congenial career was opening to him. Less than two years brought home to him a second time the severest test of principle. Would he give up his support and that of his young family—would he abandon what he had hoped would be a pleasant life-work—as a matter of patriotic duty? As soon as it became evident that Louisiana would secede, he resigned his place and returned home.

At this time he seems to have refused to believe that war was imminent, and to have had no expectation of resuming his military career. He did not sympathize with the anti-slavery movement in the North. John Sherman's identification with the Republican party as one of its leaders was not pleasant to him, and he used strong language about the "politicians" who were, as he thought, needlessly destroying the Union. When the South began active war by the attack on Fort Sumter, he expressed a willingness to reënter the regular army, but thought his duty to his wife and children forbade his entering the volunteer service for only three months, the extent of Lincoln's first call for troops. He tried the superintendence of a street-railway company in St. Louis, as a stop-gap and bread-winner for the moment, but tendered his military service to the Government when the call for three years' men was issued. He was appointed Colonel of the Thirteenth Infantry, regular army, on May 14, 1861, and immediately went to Washington, where he was put upon inspection duty with the new volunteer army collecting there, while his subordinates in the regiment were recruiting and organizing it in different parts of the West.

The interval since he had resigned from the army in 1853 had been full of varied experience for him, and at times his outlook had been anything but promising; but he had faced every exigency with manly courage and highest principle, always asking first what was his duty, and putting last the question of his advantage. In the providential education which fits men for a great career, the eight years were of more importance than he dreamed of. He had learned how to turn his hand (and his brain) to almost anything. He had developed self-reliance and patience in adversity. He had broadened his views of the world, and had been freed from the narrowing effect of military routine. He had greatly matured all his ideas and grown large in moral courage and in will. In short, he was fitted for command.

He commanded a brigade in the first battle of Bull Run, and in the turmoil of the retreat to Washington saw how much was to be done to make an army out of the noble but untrained material which flocked to the standard. Very soon Gen. Robert Anderson asked for him to assist in the organization in Kentucky of the Army of the Ohio, and he was sent West with the grade of Brigadier-General. When Anderson's health failed, he succeeded to the department command, and his energetic representations as to what must be done in the West to carry on the war successfully seemed so extravagant to Cameron, the Secretary of War, that Sherman was pushed aside as unpractical and harebrained. In truth, he was so devoured by his ideas of the importance of the task the nation had undertaken, and of the absolute necessity of success in it, that his ardent temperament might well make his words like those of a man possessed. Here, at least, was a regular-army officer who was dead in earnest in pushing every resource of the country to the utmost to match the terrible energy the South was showing. He would have despised himself if he could have been capable of sitting down quietly to the routine of a department command, or of simply obeying orders, without trying to stimulate those above him to rise to his high conception of the needs of the time and of the only road to success.

Reduced to a subordinate position, he did not sulk. He still tried to do more than was required in his post, and to volunteer aid from his surplus energy to help others without jealousy or self-seeking. Thus he organized troops at Paducah to be sent up the Tennessee River to Grant, though they passed from his command and he had to go on organizing new brigades from the raw recruits coming in. He did not hesitate a moment to take a division to Pittsburgh Landing, and thus his connection with Gen. Grant began. It would be hard to overestimate the action and reaction of these two men upon each other. Each supplemented the other, each appreciated the things in the other which he himself lacked. Each seemed at his best when co-operating with the other. From that time Sherman's history is the history of the war in the Gulf States—too long a story for such a notice as this, but one in which his courage and his patience, his energy and his self-command, his invention and his practical skill, his enterprise and his subordination, all and each were elements in a great and continuous success which never elated him, but seemed to make his judgment and his conduct ever safer and surer till final victory came, and the world was in doubt whether he or his great chief had the larger part in it.

Sherman's patriotism was as true in 1861 as it was four years later, but it was different in kind. He began the war under the sense of solemn duty to uphold the Constitution and the Union by fighting for the flag. He had been trained in the school of which his distinguished father-in-law, Thomas Ewing, was a leader. He disliked slavery, and wished to see it die out by the progress of enlightened civilization, but he could endure it and live in a society where it existed. He advocated immediate amelioration of the slave's condition and his education; but he thought the men were fools who advocated immediate a olition. He would have carried out Clay's compromises and waited for the progress of mankind to solve the rest of the problem.

The war taught him that peace could only come with universal emancipation; yet even in April, 1865, he was willing to accept the practical certainty of this, and not to insist upon its formal acknowledgment by the South. He thought it a fact accomplished by Lincoln's proclamation, and was not averse to smoothing the way to restored national relations by letting this be tacitly recognized in the final surrender. When once the war was over, however, he advocated everything which could be fairly considered the logical consequence of the victory, and was one of the rare instances of men who become less conservative as they grow older.

He persistently refused to be a candidate for the Presidency when it was notorious that he had but to say the word and he would be the nominee of the Republican party. It is possible that in this he was influenced by his brotherly wish that Senator Sherman should have the political honors, as he himself had the military ones; but he was consistent in it, for he always maintained that Grant's leaving the army to be made President was the great error of his life. The force of association made him more a party man in his later years than his earlier, but no one can doubt the quenchless fire of his patriotism, and his absolute devotion to what he regarded as the good of his whole country.

His outspoken frankness was a very striking trait of his character. It was not always bluntness in the common meaning of that term. It was rather the complete unreserve of one who was willing to have you see into his inmost soul, and who was incapable of a pretence. With this was a genial courtesy which was often very taking in his intercourse with men, and peculiarly so with women. His memoirs are one of the most noteworthy examples of self-revealing in the whole range of autobiography. Those who were nearest to him in his career know best how absolutely truthful is his story of his life, his motives, his judgments, his ambitions. He held it to be part of his duty to truth and to the development of military science that he should not withhold his unfavorable judgment when he had so judged, nor gloze over the rough passages of military experience by a general varnish of praise. He acknowledged his liability to error, and said he should be as glad as any other to have his errors corrected. His opening the appendix of his second edition to those who might think he had wronged them, was an unexampled thing of its kind.

As an officer in the field, his loyalty to his superiors was always transparent. He would urge his opinions; he would boldly use such discretion as was given him; he would suggest plans; but when the proper authority, military or civil, had spoken, he did what was ordered with as faithful a zeal as if he were carrying out his own ideas. His criticisms were always in the interest of the common purpose, never selfish. He gave the full power of his brain to helping perfect the plan, and neither gave nor took offence in doing so. When success was reached by different means from those he had

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advised, as in Grant's investment of Vicksburg, his hearty recognition of it was not diminished by a jealous word or thought.

He was never a martinet. He says himself that he was not in good "form" enough to be an officer of cadets, and remained in the ranks. He knew that in military matters form is apt to overtop substance. He wanted everything to be subordinate to the end. If pipe-clay, knapsacks, and leather stocks made the soldier march or fight less energetically, he wanted black belts, loose blouses, and blankets across the shoulder; and so with tactics. Simplicity of movement, few manœuvres, speed in getting to the proper position, and good fighting shape when there, these were in his eyes the important thing, and all the world has come to his opinion.

The two or three great captains in any age are alike in the supreme qualities which make a general. They have the unruffled presence of mind which makes their intellectual operations most sure and true in the greatest and most sudden peril, and the true greatness which makes the most momentous decision and unhesitating action under vast responsibility as if these were the every-day work of their lives. The present generation has in our army seen two such, Grant and Sherman. It is doubtful if it has seen a third. A number of brilliant names of the second order might have developed into the highest rank, but none can fully claim it who has not handled a hundred thousand men in an independent campaign.

It remains only to add that Gen. Sherman was better loved the better he was known. His subordinates who gave him zealous service have no sores or scars caused by his rule. He could command without being arrogant. He weighed all good reasons, he listened to all reasonable complaints. He was a good comrade and a loyal friend who made no pretence of superiority, but who knew when and how to give the word of command. The country has lost a great and pure character and a great patriot, and will find him greater as the seasons pass over his grave.

SARDOU'S "THERMIDOR."

PARIS, February 4, 1891.

THE representation of "Thermidor," the new drama of Sardou's, has assumed the character of a political event. The first representation was very quiet; it took place before the usual public of the *premières*, composed of literary men, critics, journalists, actors, actresses, with an addition of people of fashion who value a *première* as they would any other kind of entertainment. This collection, or selection, if you choose, goes in the newspapers under the name of "Tout Paris." "Tout Paris" is a difficult public, intelligent, blasé, thoroughly familiar with all theatrical tricks, with what we call the *ficelles*. It may be compared to an habitual novel-reader, who can tell you at the first page how it will end at the last. The general public does not always ratify the judgment of the public of the *premières*, but it is always more or less influenced by the opinions of the press, especially as there are at the present moment as many as three theatrical critics of great and well-deserved reputation.

"Thermidor" was well received the first night, but the best judges prophesied that it would not have a long and permanent success. The plot is taken almost entirely out of a novel by M. Claretie, the present Director of the Comédie-Française. The principal character is an actor of the Comédie, called Labussière, who tried during the Terror to save many people from the scaffold, having found a temporary occupation among the people who prepared the accusatory documents for the too famous Revolutionary Tribunal. The part of Labussière was played, and admirably played, by Coquelin. Of course there is a lover, and his love is a victim of the Terror; she is a nun, who, having fallen in love, is ready to renounce her vows and to marry her lover. She has been thrown by the Revolution out of her convent; she is in prison, and she is on the point of appearing before the terrible Tribunal. How can she be saved? The whole drama turns upon this point.

Labussière and the lover are friends (the lover was played by Marais, who makes his début at the Français after having acquired some reputation at the theatres of the boulevard); they discuss the situation; the two great scenes of the drama are inspired by it. First comes what is already called *la scène des dossiers* (the French call "dossier" the collection of written documents which are produced before the Court and analyzed by the defence as well as by the prosecution). If the nun's dossier, such as it is, is produced, she is lost. Labussière has many dossiers pass through his hands; perhaps he could substitute one for another, and our nun would then be saved. Yes, but an innocent woman would take her place on the guillotine. No, not even to save his love from death will our noble and generous lover commit such an action. This scene was played with great simplicity, and it produced a great effect.

There is another way of saving our heroine (her part was in good hands, in the hands of Mlle. Bartet): any woman condemned to capital punishment may gain time if she declares herself pregnant; and if time is gained, perhaps the odious rule of Robespierre will come to an end before the execution takes place. Here comes the second great scene of the drama. When the heroine, who has been tried and condemned, hears of this resource, the nun revolts, all her instincts of chastity rebel within her; she will rather die than tell a lie—and such a lie! If she has renounced her vows, she will not renounce her virtue. She leaves the stage to ascend the scaffold. The scene is fine, but it is extremely painful.

A voice was heard amid all the applause at the end of the play—"A l'Ambigu!" This was not a bad criticism of the piece, which is really more a melodrama than a tragedy. Sardou likes to fill the stage with people. He is a great collector of engravings and costumes, and for a whole evening the stage of the French Theatre really resembled the Paris of the Terror, with its red-caps, pikes, and jailers. The movement and animation of these scenes was something a little new at the French Theatre; the number of actors and of *figurants* was exceptional. Sardou delights in these gregarious exhibitions; we have had them in "Patrie," in "La Haine," not to speak of such plays as "Theodora" and "Cleopatra"; at the Théâtre-Français we expect something of a more literary character.

Sardou's name is so popular that, immediately after the first representation, the boxes and stalls were taken at the theatre for I do not know how many representations. The Radical papers, *La Bataille* and *Le Radical*, had, however, made a protest against "Thermidor." When their editors and contributors were seen, with some of their friends (they were not more than twenty-five in all), in the theatre before the curtain rose on the night of the second representation, it was felt that something was going to happen. They had all brought whistles, and Boileau said of the right of whistling:

"C'est un droit qu'à la porte on achète en entrant."

The noise began during the first act, when Coquelin begins his long tirade against the Terror (I will say here that there are too many tirades in the piece). Some whistles were heard in the boxes of the third tier; the public protested, but in vain. A few whistles can make any representation impossible. Coquelin became very nervous; his voice is like a trumpet. The first act was ended with some difficulty.

The second act is very peaceable, and offered few opportunities to the friends of Robespierre who were in the room. It was not so in the third act, in which is the great *scène des dossiers*, with much declamation against the guillotine. At the moment when Jean Coquelin (the son of Coquelin, a young man who gives some promise of resembling his father) begins his account of a sitting of the Convention and of the struggle between Robespierre and Tallien, the whistles began their work. The most ardent interrupter was a Communist named Lissagaray, now editor of the *Bataille*. He rose, screamed, and delivered a discourse, which was not heard, and finally, in his fury, threw his whistle in the direction of Coquelin, the father. Coquelin quietly took the little copper instrument and put it in his pocket. The editor of the *Bataille* was not satisfied with this first act of violence; he took some sous from his pocket, and threw them on the stage. Marais, one of the actors, put one in his pocket, and said: "This is a *souvenir de Bataille*," alluding to the paper edited by M. Lissagaray. These scandalous scenes did not hinder the actors from playing to the end, and the curtain fell amid the enthusiastic applause of the immense majority of auditors. One of my friends heard some one scream at the door of the theatre, when the spectators were going away, "Vive la Commune!"

The emotion was great when the news of these disorders spread over Paris. The next morning, at the Cabinet council, the Ministers discussed the subject. The French Theatre receives a large subsidy from the State; the manuscript of "Thermidor" had been submitted to the censors appointed by the Government, and had been passed by them without any difficulty. The Minister of Public Instruction, M. Bourgeois, who has the theatres in his department, allowed the piece to be played. M. Claretie, the Director of the French Theatre, is a Republican of long standing. Nobody had expected such a manifestation as had taken place. Sardou himself had declared to everybody that his play was republican in its tendencies; that he attacked the Terror and the men of the Terror, but defended the great principles of the French Revolution.

Nevertheless, the Cabinet decided that the representations of "Thermidor" could not be continued; and, in fact, the third representation, announced for the same evening, did not take place. An interpellation was immediately announced in the Chamber, and it took place on Thursday, the 29th of January. The step resorted to by the Government was attacked, not by the members of the Opposition, but by Republicans who always vote with the Government. They spoke in the name of the liberty of literature and of historical criticism; they drew the line between the Terror and the Revolution, which M. Sardou had drawn himself. It was said before the sitting that the Ministers were divided, and that a ministerial crisis was to be feared. But it soon ap-

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peared that there would be no such crisis; the Prime Minister, M. de Freycinet (who, curiously enough, has just become a colleague of M. Sardou in the French Academy), and the Home Minister, M. Constans, did not examine the question in its details; they simply said that their mission was to secure public order; that public order was threatened by manifestations in the French Theatre, and that they secured it by stopping the representations of "Thermidor."

The great event of the discussion was a cutting speech of M. Clémenceau, the leader of the Extreme Left. He said that the French Revolution was a "block" from which nothing could be detached; they must take it whole or reject it altogether. Pointing to the Right, he said that the sons were as divided as the fathers, and that this division would continue until one of the parties had completely extinguished the other. If the Government did not do its duty, he declared that the *citizens* would—meaning by the citizens, probably, the Communists of Paris. The Government did not endorse these views, yet appeared to act at the dictation of the revolutionary leader, and so did the Chamber, which ratified by its vote the action of the Government. The representations of "Thermidor" have thus assumed a political importance. Since the downfall of Boulanger, the Government has seemed to be as strong as possible: it could very well dispense with the dangerous support of M. Clémenceau. In this circumstance it has astonished its friends as much as his enemies. M. Constans had shown some of the qualities of the man of action; he was the man of the day; the country expected much of him. Is the country to be disappointed in him, as it has been in all the men who have had their hour of popularity for twenty years? Has M. Constans acted as he has done simply because the star of Jules Ferry seems to rise again on the horizon? Or is he simply convinced that republican *concentration* is a necessity of the times?

CHARLES BRADLAUGH.

LONDON, February 7, 1891.

LAST Tuesday: a leaden, chilly sky; a London railway terminus, the platform thronged with a subdued crowd of chiefly middle-aged persons of the working class. Many had evidently travelled far. The attendants in the refreshment rooms had their hands full. There was a fair sprinkling of women. Personal beauty or grace was almost absent. I can imagine how those imbued with æsthetic ideals would despise such a crowd. But, beneath all, were apparent strength and earnestness of character, self-poise, self-reliance—essentially the qualities which have made England what she is. There were no signs of mourning except where upon a seat were being collected a number of funeral wreaths, which, formed principally of white flowers, looked more bridal than funereal. Here and there were worn rosettes of white and violet ribbons, or white, violet, and green. That dull day, that huge, grimy terminus, that quiet, artistically unlovely crowd, might be taken as typical of much that characterizes our modern civilization. How opposed was the scene to usual political associations with the death and funeral of a great man! Yet it was to do honor to a great man, Charles Bradlaugh, that this assemblage met.

One special train had been announced; another and yet another were necessary before the platform was cleared. There was no hurry or confusion; all was conducted in good order. That some 2,000 individuals, men and women of the class indicated, should thus come together, prepared to sacrifice a working day, pay a minimum of half-a-dollar, and travel fifty miles, struck me as about the most sincere tribute I had ever seen rendered to the memory of any man, and this was one who had died very poor, in lodgings, who never held office, and who never wrote a line or spoke a sentence likely to live. We were an hour without stops in reaching Woking. How long it takes, even at the highest railway speed, to emerge from interminable London, and then from its interminable surroundings of streets and terraces in course of erection, and finally from its outlying zone of market gardens! As we came out on the sandy, heath-covered, pine-dotted downs of Surrey, we were conscious of drawing a freer breath. For the first time after weeks we inhaled pure air and viewed a clear country horizon. Wonderful indeed is the magnetic power of London, which, having once drawn men from fresh, free nature within the spheres of its own influences, despite all drawbacks, so generally retains its hold on them.

Past the town of Woking, which has all the appearance of rising rapidly into importance as a country resort, past its great convict establishment on the crest of a hill, we emerge again upon the wide sandy rolling downs, and reach one of the chief burying-places of London. A great improvement it is upon the old crowded graveyards of former years, but far behind American ideas of beauty and arrangement connected with cemeteries. There we alighted, and the wagon carrying the coffin was drawn by an engine up the line, and then down a siding to the receiving-platform under the little church at the entrance of the cemetery. The air was fragrant with the odor of the thyme under our feet. The crowd, gathered in a vast circle round the open grave, appeared more picturesque than at the railway station. The uniforms of several soldiers were conspicuous, and the bronzed faces of many of our Indian fellow-subjects. It would have been interesting to know the name of many an undistinguished-looking man. Some would doubtless have carried us back to Chartist times, the fall of Hyde Park railings, and the various successive struggles by which in our time British liberty has been more and more asserted and secured. Mr. Holyoake was one of the most interesting personalities there; John Morley the most noticeable among the *Parliamentary colleagues of the deceased*. There were tears on several plain, stern faces. The simple black coffin was borne in on men's shoulders and committed without ceremony to a deep grave in the sweet sandy soil. All was then over. Unnecessary lingering was undesirable in the chilling blast that swept over the country, and we were glad to crowd into the trains and return to town.

I knew little of Mr. Bradlaugh until I sat beside him in the House of Commons. My dominant feeling in connection with his name was shame that our Irish members had taken such an unworthy part together with the illiberal majority which for so long did their utmost to exclude him from Parliament. The more I saw of him, the more I admired and respected him, the more profoundly I was impressed by his largeness of nature and his conscientious dedication of his great powers to the side of right and truth on every question that came before us for discussion. His whole demeanor was marked by intensity and directness. He was seldom seen in the library or reading-rooms, or chatting in the lobby. His only relaxation, apparently, was chess in the smoking-room. He had thoroughly mastered the forms and rules of the House, and his abilities enabled him to make the best use of his knowledge. To the people of India and to all subject races under British rule, he is a supreme loss. At the grave-side a Parsee remarked to me that perhaps no Englishman was ever so sincerely regretted by a larger number of his fellow-subjects. Every trick and artifice had been tried to keep him out of the House. He had been dragged by police from the table and thrown exhausted and with torn habiliments into Palace Yard. Once conceded his rights, he was as jealous as any member could be of the respect due to the Chair, of the dignity of the House, and of all its forms and usages. He seemed incapable of pettiness or meanness. In nothing did he more show his magnanimity than in his steady adherence to the cause of Ireland, after the part her representatives had taken against him. I recall his wonderful voice, ringing like a clarion through the House, his commanding figure, clad in sombre black, the towering forehead, the white hair brushed back. The little "Exit" sketch of him in *Punch* this week is pathetic in its truthfulness; the artist has fully caught the impression given by his figure of his character.

No member was listened to with greater respect or had more completely captured the ear of the House. "I used to hate that man," said a good Catholic to me; "but as I sat beside him I could not but grow to like him." It was hardly a face to inspire love; there was too much of the bull-dog about it. It was graven with the strife and endurance of a long Ishmael life of poverty and trial. It was the countenance of one who, against overwhelming difficulties, had forced his way to recognition and respect. There was little space left for lines of tenderness, yet the man had an acutely sensitive and loving heart. I am not competent to speak regarding the general effect for good or evil on society of his 'Fruits of Philosophy' and his "atheistic" writings. Such a man need not call himself "atheist." If ever there was a believer in the government of principle and truth, it was he. If he were atheistic as to the ideal God of the world, he cannot have been so as to the God of Christ. His calling himself an atheist was perhaps felt as a challenge by many whose views may have been similar, but who did not feel bound to attempt a definition of their beliefs, positive or negative. Is it not the case that, with a haunting sense that they are perhaps not acting quite straightforwardly, men more and more shrink from such avowals, not so much from cowardice as from humility, and from a profound, growing sense of the difficulties attendant on all attempted definitions of the unknowable? Many whose opinions are entirely vague feel that they would give a false impression if, like Mr. Bradlaugh, they stigmatized themselves as atheists, though they may suppose their doubts run very much on the same lines as his. "Who fathoms the Eternal Thought?" better expresses the feeling of the present seeker after truth than the sharp iconoclasm of the religious questioning that characterized the early days of Mr. Bradlaugh, that characterized the living Winkelried struggle of his life, while he helped to make an easy, honored path for others by receiving into his own bosom the arrows of the prejudiced and of the really atheistic.

Mr. Bradlaugh's natural abilities were of an uncommon order. Buying himself out of the army, and entering an attorney's office as a messenger, within a year he had mastered the intricacies of the common law. He was a born

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orator. Earning his living through long, close hours of work, it was often his wont between Saturday night and Monday to travel several hundred miles and lecture thrice to large audiences. Meanwhile he "learned" Latin, Greek, and Hebrew, and as many modern languages as he found occasions for. When he died, he was, of all Englishmen, the best qualified to administer the Government of India. Surely it must lead to the wreck and ruin of many a noble, conscientious nature to point to such a career and say: "With ordinary talents and extraordinary perseverance all things are attainable." Is this not binding intolerable burdens upon human nature? The happiness and usefulness of life depend to a greater extent than we have as yet realized upon a correct estimate of individual powers—upon the essential difference between the capacities of ordinary men and women and those of Charles Bradlaugh. D. B.

THE POPE AND THE FRENCH REPUBLIC.

ROME, January 20, 1891.

THE position of the Pope, and the possible influence he may have on the affairs of Europe, though perhaps not so important as is believed at the Vatican, is of serious weight in the contingency of a general conflict of the Powers. The pent-up antagonism between him and the Italian Government has always been, like the sack of winds which Æolus gave to Ulysses, a danger to both if some imprudent partisan or resolution of the Sacred College should let it loose. When the Italian Government took possession of Rome, it was, as your readers probably remember, in violation of an agreement with the Emperor of France by which the position of the Pope was to be respected—the meaning being evidently that the temporal sovereignty should be maintained. It was impossible not to enter Rome after the fall of the Emperor and the total defeat of France unless the King was willing to risk a revolution. There are circumstances which are stronger than any treaty or resolutions, and if the royal troops had not taken Rome, the Garibaldians would have done so, and nobody knows what might have happened. The Law of Guarantees passed by the Government on taking possession gives the Pope a civil list of three and a quarter millions of francs and invests him with diplomatic immunities, the power of sending and receiving ambassadors, having his own posts and telegraphs, and communicating without interference with foreign Powers, and puts the Vatican and all its surroundings and the palace of the Lateran, with the Papal villa at Castel Gandolfo, under his guardianship, without tax or impost; holding, however, to the inherent national sovereignty over the whole. Exterritorialized by Italian concession, it is capable of being reclaimed by an exercise of the same will. The Pope, as was to be apprehended, refused to accept a limited sovereignty, declines the endowment, and refuses to recognize the possession of Rome by Italy. This is the normal position. The Pope, standing on the principle that, as head of the Church, he cannot be subject of any earthly sovereign, maintains that he must be placed in a position of political independence; while the Italians maintain that the whole of Italy belongs to the Italian people, and that the national will is sovereign.

All the appeals to the Powers to oblige the Italian Government to respect the Papal independence, *i. e.*, the temporal power, have been responded to by the statement that they regard the question as one of the internal politics of Italy, in which they have no right to interfere, with the exception of France, which does not disclaim a right of interference based on the treaty stipulating for the independence of the Holy See; and it is well understood that this intervention is the sword of Damocles over the head of Italy, and that the hope of the Vatican is in the compulsion of France, for the Italians will never submit to the separation of Rome from Italy, or the return of the temporal power over it except as the consequence of military defeat, *i. e.*, irresistible compulsion. The consequences of such an eventuality on the future of the Church in Italy and the position of the Papacy may be left to those who choose to prophesy and have the gift, for I can only conjecture. The present situation is enough for an uninspired journalist. As respects political independence, the Pope is as dependent on France for what he would have, as he now is for what he has on Italy. He escapes from Scylla to fall into Charybdis, and the latter is really much the greater slavery of the two, for a French garrison in Rome means an absolute political subserviency to France, while with Italy entire freedom of action and motion is secured on condition that the Vatican abstains from politics.

What the subserviency to France means is now made clear by two questions which have arisen between that country and the Vatican. The first was on the appointment of the new Bishop of Strassburg, for which place the French Government urged the appointment of an Alsatian, while the German insisted on that of a German, as was to be expected; and the result was equally to have been expected, for the Pope has as large an interest at stake in Germany as in France, with the additional consideration that if the nomination did not suit the German Government, the exequatur would be refused. What motive could have induced the Republic to enter on such a contest when the game was in the hands of the Germans, and sure to be won by them, I do not see. But the Vatican has had to admit, and the Republic to learn, that though the latter is the only friend the former has, the friendship is not enough to induce the Pope to resist the demands of the German Government when the pressure is urgent on both sides. Monseigneur Fritzen, the candidate of the Emperor, has been appointed. I am told that the irritation at Paris is very great, and one can readily conceive this, for the influence of the Bishop must be of immense weight in the direction of public opinion in the contested questions of loyalty which will continually arise; but that the French Ministry should conceive that it could prevail on the Pope to nominate a Bishop whom it had proposed, against the certain opposition of the Emperor, indicates that it had a high opinion of its own influence at the Vatican.

The other question is one which has a much larger scope and which offers the possibility of much more serious results. It is that of the recognition of the Republic by the Vatican in such form as to detach the clergy from the Royalist and Imperial parties. The advanced position taken by Cardinal Lavigerie, echoed by one of the bishops, was taken as a demonstration by the Vatican of the abandonment of the monarchical pretenders and a conversion to the Republic; but

> "If the red slayer think he slays,
> Or if the slain think he is slain,
> They know not well the subtle ways
> I keep, and pass, and turn again";

and the Republic is now probably realizing that, though the Pope may accept a republican government where it exists uncontested, as in the United States of America, and live in peace with it, the conditions of political organization in France are such that he cannot identify himself with them. Their logical consequence in Italy is the abolition of his political existence, the right of revolution being opposed to the divine right on which his claims rest, while the durability of the Republic is not so certain that he can for *les beaux yeux* of the last of the heathen mythical creations afford to quarrel with his only true and devoted partisans in France, the Royalists, the only Frenchmen who still hold to the principle on which the Papacy is founded; the more so as, in the mutations which lie in the future, they may find that the royalty is not slain, but may "keep, and pass, and turn again."

The result of the venture of Lavigerie was that Cardinal Rampolla, Papal Secretary of State, *malgré lui* had to send out a circular in which he seemed to approve the language of Lavigerie, but the real meaning of which was that the Vatican accepted the Republic because it existed; that though very friendly to that particular republic, it declined to undertake any propaganda for it; and that Lavigerie was quietly disavowed wherever it was necessary, and other bishops made to understand that the Vatican did not care to follow in that way. The apostle of the anti-slavery crusade was left out in the cold, and has become an impossible Cardinal, so far as future advancement goes and while the present system endures. "They know not well the subtle ways," nor did they understand the mighty immobility of the Church. Somebody had to be punished; the Pope and cardinals were out of reach, and so the Abbé Puyol was dismissed, being the person of all whom the French Government could reach who was nearest and personally dearest to the Pope. The Abbé Puyol was the head of a French religious community in Rome and curé of the national church St. Louis des Français. The Pope had sent him, according to one version, but he had volunteered according to another, to settle a difference between some parish priests who had incurred the anger of the Government of the Republic by either using their influence for the wrong candidate or not using it for the right one—for it is not easy to get at the exact truth of the matter—and had been dismissed, suspended, or otherwise punished and had demanded reparation of the law. The Abbé conveyed to them the desire of the Pope that they should abandon the litigation, which they did, and the Abbé then obtained at his own suggestion, or conveyed at that of the Pope, some ecclesiastical honors (chamberlainships or similar), to express the satisfaction of his Holiness at their docility. This happened some time ago, and one would have thought, if worthy such a severe punishment as the cutting short of the Abbé's ecclesiastical career, should have been visited at once. The fact that it was only discovered to be so grave an offence after the other differences had come to a head, is confirmation strong enough of the feeling at the Vatican that the blow was intended by prosopopeia for the Pope.

I hear from one of the Monsignori of my acquaintance that the indignation in ecclesiastical quarters is very intense, not merely at this, but at the general pressure put on the French clergy to favor the Republic. The Monsignori say that it was direct and even brutal pressure to take an active part in the elections in favor of the Republic, and the friends of the Government say that all it wants is their complete abstinence from any mixture in politics. It does not seem possible that the purely negative policy of the latter version could develop the bitter feeling which

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I have had evidence of on the part of the churchmen. One thing is certain: the cordiality between the Republic and the Vatican is very far from what it used to be and must be, to have much political result in favor of the present Government. The impression seems to be that the Republic is not so solid as is assumed by the republicans, and, considering the power the clergy have over the votes of the peasants, the anxiety to secure their cordial support is very natural and justifiable. But if the Pope were determined to assert his independence and direct the influence of the Church in favor of the Royalists, or, feeling himself abandoned by France, to initiate a crusade in favor of peace and disarmament according to the principles of Christianity, or finally, finding all hope of a restoration of the temporal power gone, should reconcile himself to the kingdom of Italy, the effect of his power over European politics might be to change the aspect of affairs. This again is speculation; what is certain is that there is a serious breach between the Pope and the Republic. X.

Correspondence.

FORMS OF EXECUTIVE POWER.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The Boston *Transcript* has a letter from Mr. E. A. Freeman deprecating a rumored change in the Swiss Constitution so as to make the Federal Executive Council elective by the people, instead of by the Federal Assembly, and instituting a comparison which it is interesting to follow.

(1.) The Federal Council is chosen for three years as its first act by the Federal Assembly elected for the same period, and the Council chooses each year as its President one member, who represents them on state occasions but has no special power. The Council is irremovable, and lasts as long as the Assembly. The members of the Council cannot be members of the Assembly—that is, they cannot vote in it; but they can attend meetings and can speak in either house at pleasure.

(2.) The French President is elected by both houses in joint session for a period of seven years, and is irremovable except by impeachment. He has no seat and no voice in either house, and in fact the Legislature pays little or no attention to him, but sets up and pulls down ministries, at the pleasure of a fluctuating majority, on the same principle as, but with much greater instability than, the British Parliament.

(3.) In Great Britain the Prime Minister is nominally appointed by the Queen, but is practically the choice of the majority of the House of Commons. The rest of the Cabinet are voluntary associates whom the Prime Minister persuades to serve, with the understanding that he will support them—that is, will resign if any one of them is defeated. The first and most absorbing occupation, therefore, of the British Ministry is to keep its footing.

(4.) The Italian Ministry is substantially on the same footing as the British.

(5) The United States method, though coming nearest to the Swiss, differs entirely from the others. A single President is elected by the nation, and selects his Cabinet, which the Senate seldom or never refuses to confirm. The one objection which all foreign critics, including Mr. Freeman, make to our system, is, that the Cabinet have neither seat nor voice in the Legislature, which, as well as the country, is thus deprived of this guidance, which is almost indispensable for either successful legislation or administration. But these critics treat this as if it were a necessary part of our system, which it is not at all. Why could not our Cabinet, without being members of the Legislature—that is, having no vote—have seats and a voice there just as much as the Federal Council? Why, being the choice of the President for a fixed term, need they resign upon an adverse vote any more than the Federal Council? Mr. Freeman says that as the President and the Cabinet often belong to a different party from the majority in Congress, the two would quarrel. But the Swiss Assembly must be more or less than human if, in the course of three years, they do not find grounds of quarrel with the Council, even though elected by them; and it would be perfectly easy, even if they are irremovable, to make their positions insupportable. For whatever reason, this does not happen. Congress would be exceedingly wary of quarrelling with our President, because the popular sympathy would always be with him, and any appearance of factious opposition would touch the Congressman in his tenderest point—fear for his seat.

The Swiss method of an Executive Council without official head is undoubtedly on a wrong principle, and why it works as well as it does can only be explained by the smallness of the territory and the character of the people. If it came to be made up by a popular election, its weakness would probably soon be made apparent. Our method of electing a single President by the whole people is one of the strongest working arrangements in the world. To show how strong it is, an experiment, one of the most interesting in the history of politics—that of giving the Cabinet seats and a voice in Congress—could be made with the greatest ease, and discontinued if unsatisfactory. The obstacle consists in the preponderance of private interests, the rule of the lobby, the jealousy of the committee system and of the party machinery. The only interest to be benefited would be that of the people at large and of the whole nation, which, as everybody knows, is now of little account. But if some President, or even some Cabinet officer, ever has the courage to appeal from Congress directly to the people, he may find that that interest has still something to say for itself. G. B.

Boston, February 7, 1891.

ANOTHER EFFECT OF HIGH TARIFFS?

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Will you allow me to call the attention of American manufacturers, sending goods to a foreign market, to the fact that, when directions or warnings are necessary to the proper use of such goods, the language of the foreign market should be employed? The same regulation applies also to advertisements, if it is expected that any advantage will be derived from them.

To use the foreign language would be so evidently in the interest of the manufacturer or shipper that it is surprising that this caution is necessary; yet Americans living abroad have often occasion to notice this want of forethought.

As particularly erring in this respect should be noted a well-known brand of canned corned-beef, each can of which has printed upon it, in Engli h, a warning to the effect that the meat should not be allowed to remain in the can after it is once opened. If any dangerous results are to be feared from disobedience to this direction, it should surely be printed in a language to be understood by the buyer. Here, in Germany, this American canned corned beef can be seen for sale in every provision store; it is the custom of the dealer to sell the meat by the slice, from a five or ten-pound can, using the can in the meantime as a convenient receptacle for the meat until all is sold. As neither German buyer nor seller can read the English warning against this practice, the moral responsibility for any accident arising therefrom must fall upon the American seller.

I have often also seen children's toys and games, of American make, offered for sale in Germany with only English explanations, thus almost precluding their sale. Also those peculiarly American labor-saving articles, patent sweepers, ice-cream freezers, apple-parers, etc., are sometimes rendered ineffectual through their improper use, which too often arises from a lack of a proper explanation in a language comprehensible by the user.

H. C. P.

Dresden, Germany, January 22, 1891.

"F. H." AND THE LETTER *H*.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: If Professor Hart, by his reflections on me in your columns, has realized his obvious aim, he has determined my level, as a philological inquirer, to be that of an underflogged schoolboy. The reasons I am about to give for declining to accept the rank which has, by implication, been assigned me, will, I apprehend, be acknowledged as valid.

Some time in the course of the last century, possibly not long before or after the middle of it, there arose, in England, among the uneducated, a habit of freely dropping the initial aspirate of words to which it belongs, and of prefixing the aspirate to words beginning with vowels. On this habit, which grew, by degrees, to be epidemic over a good part of the land, I made a few remarks in No. 1330 of your journal. And in those remarks I kept strictly to my subject.

But there is another subject, one in no wise connected therewith, which Prof. Hart chooses to think that I should have considered simultaneously; and, because I left it untouched, I am forthwith loftily taxed with nothing less than the rawest sciolism of a certificated dunce.

The particular phase of sciolism in question indeed involves, for instance, unacquaintance with the Biblical *emerods* and Shakespeare's *Ebrew;* forms on which I find, among my papers, a note taken as far back as 1838.

This statement, indicative of my early interest in philology, counts for nothing, I am well aware, in rebuttal of Prof. Hart's gratuitous assumption. But very different is the fact that I am able to quote, as follows, what I incidentally put in print eighteen years ago:

"For several centuries, the rights of *h* were far from being rigidly defined; and old authors often have *hable, habundance, hangle, happle, hearl, helder, hoak, howlet, husance*, etc., with *abit, emisphere, emorrhoids, ierarch, oly, ymn, ypocrite, yssop*, etc. In the thirteenth, fourteenth, and fifteenth centuries, as I could show from Roberd of Gloucester, William of Palerne, Capgrave, and a host of other authorities, *his*, the pronoun, was corrupted into *is*. I shall make use, a little farther on, of the fact here shown, namely, that the initial *h* was once prefixed, or omitted, with great carelessness."—*Modern English* (1873), p. 358.

Your obedient servant, F. H.

Marlesford, England, January 23, 1891.

Notes.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co.'s spring announcements include a revised edition of 'Poole's In-

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dex to Periodical Literature'; 'The Sisters' Tragedy, with Other Poems, Lyrical and Dramatic,' by T. B. Aldrich; 'A Sappho of Green Springs,' a new volume of stories by Bret Harte; some thirty discourses by the Rev. A. P. Peabody, entitled 'King's Chapel Sermons'; 'As It Is in Heaven,' reflections on the future life, by Lucy Larcom; 'The Epic of the Inner Life,' studies in the Book of Job, by Prof. J. F. Genung of Amherst; and 'Japanese Girls and Women,' by Miss Alice M. Bacon.

Macmillan & Co. make the very interesting announcement that they will shortly publish 'The Oxford Movement: Twelve Years, 1833–1845,' by the late Dean Church. This is a volume based upon Dean Church's personal recollections, and will follow the course of the movement from its first public beginning to the secession of Dr. Newman. The "character sketches" of Newman, Keble, Hurrell Froude, Ward, and others that are promised will be eagerly looked for by many. Material for a history of the Oxford movement is now rapidly accumulating, and none is likely to be more valuable than Dean Church's book will be.

N. D. C. Hodges will publish directly 'The Labrador Coast: A Journal of Two Summer Cruises to that Region,' by Prof. Alpheus S. Packard. The work will contain notes on the early discovery of Labrador, its Eskimo inhabitants, physical features, fauna, etc., and a bibliography of works and charts pertaining to the civil and natural history of the peninsula. It will be illustrated.

The American Academy of Political and Social Science will shortly issue a translation, by Dr. R. P. Falkner of the University of Pennsylvania, of Prof. Meitzen's work on 'Statistics.'

The eighth volume of the Messrs. Putnam's edition of the Writings of Washington, edited by Mr. Worthington C. Ford, covers the period August 2, 1779–October 18, 1790, which is somewhat devoid of military interest, though the arrival of Rochambeau and D'Estaing and the treason and flight of Arnold mark the beginning of the end of the war. It seems worth remarking that Washington used, in a letter to Benjamin Harrison of October 25, 1779, a rare word which Dr. Murray, in his New English Dictionary, can trace no further back than 1847. It will be found on p. 94 in a sentence containing this clause: "without doing a single thing *advancive* of the end in view." The 'Century Dictionary' quotes without date, through Bancroft, another but later employment of the same word by Washington. It occurs in a letter to R. H. Lee, dated March 15, 1785: "more *advancive* of individual interest than the public welfare."

With the fourteenth volume, Prof. Masson concludes his admirable editing of 'The Collected Writings of Thomas De Quincey' (Edinburgh: Adam & Charles Black; New York: Macmillan). Naturally we have here a very miscellaneous assortment, some of the pieces having for the first time been detected by Prof. Masson in the magazine to which they were contributed unsigned, and one having never seen the light before, being a MS. appendage to the graduating thesis of De Quincey's son. This last is an answer to the so-called "Religious Objections to the Use of Chloroform"—objections which shed an awful light on the state of the human intellect in 1847. Perhaps the most valuable find of all was the "Recollections of Hannah More," published anonymously after her death in 1833 at a very short interval. She was a friend of his mother, and encouraged a Calvinistic sternness of regimen of which De Quincey got the benefit; and his analysis of Mrs. More's character is harsh enough. Her reputation as an author, he says, "first commenced in a reciprocal intercourse of flattery," and he would not acquit her of worldly-mindedness. Here, too, we have a translation of Kant's no less severe "Abstract of Swedenborgianism," with two other Kantian pieces, swelling the total of De Quincey's exposition of the great philosopher to no mean amount; a comparison of French and English manners; a denunciation of the Free Church movement in Scotland; an argument for the opium war with China, etc. Prof. Masson makes an estimate, in his Epilogue, of De Quincey's literary activity and his probable (very small) earnings as a littérateur almost wholly publishing through the magazines; and provides most scrupulous tables of chronological production and an index. Devotion to a favorite author could hardly further go, or more judiciously.

The "Tudor Library" (London: David Nutt) continues its elegant and beautiful reprints of Elizabethan rarities with the English translation of the first book of Francesco Colonna's strange romance, the 'Hypnerotomachia,' or 'The Strife of Love in a Dream,' as the title runs here. Mr. Andrew Lang furnishes an unsympathetic preface, in which the most he grants is that some of the language might have pleased the "unripe youth of Keats"; but he treats the whole slightingly. The original work is valued for its charming woodcuts, more delightful, *pace* Mr. Lang, than the French reproduction of them, and here poorly represented by some examples copied by a mechanical process from the original Aldine of 1499, with great loss of refinement in the line. The text is a free translation, and represents well enough the curious conglomerate of art and theology, herbs, precious stones, devices, mythology, and erotic imagination which compose this characteristic Renaissance monument. The love of architecture and the lapidary's art, the turn for obscure allegory, and the delight of the author in all wrought objects of beauty, are most conspicuous; but through all the unintelligible maze of description one finds a lover of the beautiful and of the ancient world, so possessed with his love as to represent vividly that intoxication of the sense of beauty which belonged to the Renaissance. It is a book for few readers, but those who have the secret will find pleasure in this profusion of the author's dream; they will not care overmuch for the sense of his words, and they will meet with many brief passages of real poetic charm, set forth in phrases of a mingled sweetness and nobleness of which our language has long lost the art. The edition is limited to 500 copies.

The past year of *Harper's Magazine* is bound up in volumes 80, 81, and the excellent tables of contents enable one to take a bird's-eye view of the editor's feast. Russia stands at the head of foreign countries illustrated, with Landsdell's "Baltic Russia," Vicomte de Vogüé's "Through the Caucasus," Theodore Child's "Russian Art," and a Russian general's account of the Russian Army, as Lord Wolseley describes the standing army of Great Britain and Gen. Wesley Merritt that of the United States. Mr. Child is perhaps the most favored contributor, as he is represented not only by the article just mentioned, but also by one on modern French painters and three on South America—"Across the Andes" and "Chili" (Agricultural, and Urban and Commercial). We recall also Mr. Charles Dudley Warner's paper on Southern California ("Our Italy"), Mr. Laurence Hutton's "American Burlesque," and the Abbey and Lang Shaksperian partnership in the case of the "Merchant of Venice" and the "Merry Wives of Windsor."

The thousand pages of *Harper's Weekly* for 1890 bring to mind with text and engraving such events as the fall of Bismarck, the Pan-American Congress, the rescue of Emin Pasha, the Louisville tornado, the Indian ghost-dances and slaughter, the development of our navy, the centennial of the Supreme Court, the beneficence of Baron Hirsch and Daniel Fayerweather, and many of minor moment. The supplements have supplied a great variety of useful and entertaining monographs, in which descriptions of American cities and of city clubs have been prominent. Mr. Child has had much to tell here also of South America. Mr. Janvier's "Aztec Treasure-House" has been the leading serial in fiction. The portraits in these successive volumes one can but feel to be of the most permanent worth. The obituary and the political series are both very extensive, and the student of physiognomy can draw a swift moral from the latter.

It is difficult to sum up the pictorial aspect of *Harper's Bazar* for the same period. "Actuality" is almost excluded from it, and there is in the cartoons but the faintest intimation of the great happenings in the world without the circle of the modiste. Mr. T. W. Higginson's fortnightly papers to and about women are the best corrective of too close attention to the main object of this fashion periodical.

The publisher of 'Bibliographie générale et raisonée du droit belge,' by Edmond Picard and Ferdinand Larcier (Ve. F. Larcier, Brussels, 22 Rue des Minimes), has done well to print an alphabetical subject-index to that excellent work. Six pages of addenda bring the total number of title entries up to 9,510, and the index swells the number of pages in the book to 1,354. The new title-page which is supplied for the completed volume states the exact period covered by the bibliographical record to be from the time of the separation of Belgium from France, in 1814, to October 1, 1889; and supplements are announced to be published to cover every subsequent five years. The index is furnished without charge to all subscribers to the original work.

The 'Inorganic Chemistry' of William Jago (Longmans) is, on the whole, a fairly good elementary treatise, deserving neither special praise nor blame. The illustrations help to make it a useful school-book. Of a far higher character is the translation, by J. Bishop Tingle, of Prof. E. Hjelt's 'Principles of Organic Chemistry' (same publishers). In the author's words, it is intended for students who have already some general knowledge of organic chemistry and who wish to extend and *systematize* that knowledge. It is precisely in this systematization that the value of this manual consists. Organic chemistry now presents a colossal mass of facts expressed in formulas which can only be understood by reduction to primary forms. Prof. Hjelt's book will materially assist the student in the necessary work of reference and reduction. It is essentially, however, an elementary work.

Our economic degradation and slavishness is renewedly brought to mind by an edition, revised to January 1, 1891, of 'Downing's United States Customs Tariff' (New York: R. F. Downing & Co.). It gives the text of the McKinley Customs Administrative Act and Tariff Act, together with an alphabetical schedule of articles and duties, with references to the paragraphs in the said acts which provide

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for them. The latest decisions of the Treasury on this mass of oppression and confusion are embodied in the schedule.

The report of the Massachusetts Board of Health for 1889 deals with some matters of common interest, but the results are not particularly satisfactory. Special reports are made upon intermittent fever and upon the *grippe*, but in neither case is our knowledge of causes much extended. In fact, the returns are too imperfect in the case of "malaria" to justify any wide generalization, although it is evident that fever attributed to this cause is disappearing in places where it formerly prevailed, and is manifesting itself in many new localities in the eastern part of the State. But as it frequently does not appear where it theoretically should, and does appear where it should not, it is evident that there is yet much to be learned about it. A beginning is made in the collection of statistics of the physique of women which, if continued, will furnish some useful data. Much valuable assistance is given by the Board to towns and individuals who propose to engage in the construction of water and sewerage works, and it is evident that this new function satisfies a public want.

The New York Shakespeare Society announces that it ceased, with the issue for January, 1891, to conduct, or to be responsible for, the magazine *Shakespereana*.

In the *Magazine of American History* for February, Mr. H. E. Green, who is engaged in indexing the Pickering MSS. presented to the Massachusetts Historical Society, indicates the range and great value of this collection, and conveys a not to be despised impression of the worth of Timothy Pickering which even a cataloguer must feel. Abstracts of all the letters will be given, he says, with entries under all subjects of any importance.

Mr. Wm. Coolidge Lane of the Harvard University Library publishes in its Bulletin for January an Index of reference lists and special bibliographies included in periodical and other publications of recent date. It is in continuation of a similar Index published in 1888.

Mr. James T. Maffett, formerly member of Congress, is building up at the new State Normal School at Clarion, Pa., a collection of public documents, State and national, which promises to be very large indeed, and perhaps might already claim to be unrivalled. In such matters the rule that unto him that hath shall be given seems eminently fitting; and as there cannot be many collectors having the same ambition with Mr. Maffett, it is safe to wish that he may establish a permanent inflow to his peculiar library of reference.

A number of the leading librarians of the United States have joined in a testimonial to the worth and indispensableness of the Monthly Catalogue of United States Government Publications which has for several years been issued, amid many discouragements, by Mr. J. H. Hickcox at Washington, D. C. Its plan includes the separate entry of every paper or contribution contained in the publications—an immense boon to all who consult it. Strange to say, the Catalogue has not received the full support of the public libraries, and this unique undertaking is in danger of collapse. Such a fate would certainly be a shame to the community, and the publisher does not ask too much in requesting a doubling of present subscriptions and a fresh adhesion on the part of the delinquent. Mr. Hickcox's address is 905 M Street, Washington.

The eighth of the "Old South Leaflets" (Boston) for 1890 is a very interesting collection pertaining to the American Indians. It opens with a discourse by William Henry Harrison, in 1839, on the Mound-builders of the Ohio Valley. Next comes Thomas Morton's account of Indian manners and customs in his 'New English Canaan' (1637), followed by John Eliot's 'Brief Narrative' (1670), William Hubbard's relation of the beginning of King Philip's War in his 'Narrative' (1677), Pontiac's speech (1763) from Parkman, an extract from Black Hawk's autobiography as to the cause of the war bearing his name, Coronado's letter to Mendoza (1540), and Wheelock's narrative concerning his Indian charity-school at Lebanon, Conn.—a choice little assortment, truly, and the whole carefully annotated and illustrated.

Extensive preparations are being made at Munich for the Annual International Art Exhibition of 1891, and invitations to the artists of Germany and other nations have been already issued. This year the whole of the "Glass Palace" will be available for the purposes of the exhibition, so that there will be no lack of space. Applications of artists who wish to be represented should be made as early as possible to the Secretary of the Künstler-Genossenschaft, Briennerstrasse.

—Details of reorganization of the faculties and of the departments are the most important feature of the annual report of President Eliot of Harvard. The question of a three-years in place of a four-years course is left, where the Overseers have placed it, in suspense; but there is some quiet marshalling of data confirming the late average age of entrance to the academic course—nobody now below sixteen, and the average at nineteen; and a circular advising parents not to hold back their sons when prepared for college, is printed as authorized by the Faculty. Gratification is expressed at the manifest tendency to reduce the number of intercollegiate games, "it having been already demonstrated in boating and foot-ball that one intercollegiate match is sufficient to maintain all necessary interest in home practice"; and, adds President Eliot, "the best number of intercollegiate contests is the smallest number which will maintain" this interest. He does not allude to the probable good effects, in this direction, of the proposed shortening of the course. The allowable substitutes for Greek in the entrance examinations are still not largely availed of—by less than 9 per cent. in 1890; and the true explanation is given—"the capacity and taste for mathematics and physical science are much less common than the capacity and taste for languages." In other words, speech, as it was the fundamental distinction between man and the lower animals, remains the most natural. In this connection, readers of the report will note attentively what is said about the effort to improve the gift of expression in English at Harvard—a problem needlessly complicated, as we believe, by the endeavor to cultivate by one and the same exercise the art of clearly stating what a man has to tell, and to force the brain to think. A general prosperity prevailed throughout the University during the past year, happily marked by the raising of professors' salaries; but there is an ominous warning from the Library that its shelf-room is nearly exhausted; and, as our readers are aware, the undergraduates are laboring to raise money for a separate reading-room adequate to the needs of the ever-growing number of students who voluntarily and perforce frequent the Library. "This," says President Eliot, with one exception, "is the most urgent need of the University at this moment."

—The Bureau of Education's Circular of Information, No. 3, 1890, is a bulky pamphlet on 'The Teaching and History of Mathematics in the United States,' by Prof. Florian Cajori of Colorado College. Three-quarters of the 400 pages are given to the history proper, full in facts and decidedly anecdotical, but sadly wanting an index. Some of the stories are rather personal. The following relates to Prof. J. J. Sylvester, who is referred to as "Silly":

"His manner of lecturing was highly rhetorical and elocutionary. When about to enunciate an important or remarkable statement, he would draw himself up till he stood on the very tips of his toes, and in deep tones thunder out his sentences. He preached at us at such times; and not infrequently he wound up by quoting a few lines of poetry to impress on us the importance of what he had been declaring. I remember distinctly an incident that occurred when he was at work on his Universal Algebra. He had jumped to a conclusion which he was unable to prove by logical deduction. He stated this fact to us in the lecture, and then went on: 'GENTLEMEN' [here he raised himself on his toes], 'I am *certain* that my conclusion is correct. I will WAGER a hundred pounds to *one*; yes, I will WAGER my *life* on it.' The capitals indicate when he rose on his toes, and the italics when he rocked back on to his heels. In such bursts as these he always held his hands tightly clenched and close to his side, while his elbows stuck out in the plane of his body, so that his bended arm made an angle of about 140°."

Following this historical matter are twenty-three questions concerning methods of teaching and the like answered in the briefest manner by professors of 168 colleges, with other decisions by teachers in normal schools and others by principals of high schools. All this part of the book is diffuse and ill-edited. Little or no discrimination has been exercised in selecting the institutions; and from many of the most important there are no replies. There are none from Harvard, Yale, Princeton, the University of Pennsylvania, Ann Arbor, Cornell, Clark University, or the University of Wisconsin, all of which seats of learning should have been visited.

—The arrangement of the answers is such as to cover a great deal of paper while affording the reader no facilities; the whole thought, apparently, having been to save trouble to the compiler. As a fair sample of the value of these decisions, we may summarize those which sprawl over the half of three pages in response to the question, "Do scientific or classical students show the greater aptitude for mathematics?" The answers are:

Decidedly, the scientific,	from	41 colleges.
Decidedly, the classical,	"	28 "
Apparently, the scientific,	"	7 "
Apparently, the classical,	"	9 "
Sensibly equal,	"	13 "
Doubtful or nearly equal,	"	14 "

The more expanded statements could easily be put into half-a-dozen lines more. These replies prove nothing, unless proof be needed that most college professors know little of the aptitudes of their students. The last forty pages of the book are occupied with historical essays, germane to the subject, though of no great value. An appendix gives a useful bibliography of American treatises on the calculus, thirty-three in number.

—M. Marcel Schwob, whose minute and fruitful researches concerning the life and works of Mr. Swinburne's sad, bad, mad, glad master, François Villon, have been heretofore noted in these columns, has just announced another discovery. Students of Villon will remember that, in the "Grand Testament," the first bequest that the poet sets down is one to Maistre Guillaume de Villon, who has been more than a father to him, he says, and gentler than a mother:

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"Je luy donne ma librairie,
Et le *Rommant du Pet au Diable*,
Lequel maistre Gui Tabarie
Grossoya, qu'est hom veritable.
Par cayers est soubz une table,
Combien qu'il soit rudement faict,
La matiere est si très notable,
Qu'elle amende tout le meffaict."

Up to the present time it has been believed that this "Rommant" was a purely imaginary work, but M. Schwob has unearthed from the registers of the Parlement Criminel of the year 1453 a full account of the circumstances under which it was written. The troubles that abounded in that year between the students at Paris and the authorities had sprung from the imprisonment of thirty of the scholars who had been engaged in an escapade of a sort that has not even yet become wholly obsolete among undergraduates. There was a rock called the Pet au Diable that stood in front of the house of Mlle. de Bruyères, facing St. Jean de Grève, which the students managed somehow to transport to the Mont Ste. Geneviève. There they crowned it with flowers, and made the passers-by salute it, and tore down signs from the Halles and the Porte Baudet, and danced about it all night *à fleutes et à bedons*. Villon, as one might naturally expect, took his full share in these rejoicings, and was obliged to flee Paris in consequence. He took his revenge on Mlle. de Bruyères, whose servants had insulted the students, in the famous "Il n'est bon bec que de Paris," and besides, under the archaic form of the *rommant*, he told the story of the adventure of the Pet au Diable. This was doubtless his first literary work. So far as is known it has not survived. M. Marcel Schwob's paper was read before the Academy of Inscriptions and Belles-Lettres on January 17 of this year.

—Dr. Henry Simonsfeld, whose valuable history of the guild of German merchants in Venice was noticed in these columns some time ago, has just added another contribution to our knowledge of German colonial enterprises in Italy by publishing, in the Transactions of the Bavarian Academy of Sciences (Munich: G. Franz), a very curious constitution of a society of German citizens in the town of Treviso, which seems to have been founded about the year 1440, and which, towards the end of the fifteenth century, had attained a membership of some 400 persons. The chief aim of the society appears to have been mutual aid in case of sickness and distress, and the providing of a decent funeral in case of death. But it also regulated the every-day life of its members in a manner which reminds one of the restrictions and pledges of modern temperance societies. No member of the guild was allowed to play at dice for money with a fellow-member, or to play at all with an outsider. Under severe penalty, the brethren were forbidden to use bad language or to quarrel with each other. Each Sunday every member had to pay one shilling into the common treasury, "pro redimendis peccatis." With the exception of three clergymen, the society consisted exclusively of artisans and small tradesmen; the shoemakers, the innkeepers, the furriers, and the bakers leading the rest in numbers. The colony maintained itself, although gradually declining, until the end of the seventeenth century; and from the fact that the text of the constitution is given both in Latin and in German, the record of the members in German only, it would appear that it also maintained its nationality in the midst of foreign surroundings.

—Franz Gillparzer is unquestionably Austria's greatest dramatic poet, and is even regarded by many German critics as holding the very front rank in this province of German literature, side by side with the apotheosized Goethe and Schiller. The celebration of his centennial birthday on January 15 called forth enthusiastic expressions of this feeling, and showed the high estimation of his genius entertained by his countrymen. Not only in Vienna, his native city, but also throughout the length and breadth of Germany, from Munich and Stuttgart to Berlin and Hamburg, the principal theatres represented series of his plays, often eight or ten in number, and the press devoted columns of contributions to his praise. The Austrian Government gave official recognition to the day, and the Minister of Public Instruction ordered an appropriate commemoration of it in all the German schools of the polygenous and polyglottous empire. The Stuttgart publisher Cotta, who issued in 1887 a *Gesammtausgabe* of Grillparzer's works in sixteen volumes, with portrait and a "biographical - literary - historical introduction," brought out in honor of the occasion a "jubilee edition" of his minor poems, containing lyrical, epigrammatic, parabolical, memorial, and occasional effusions, many of which have no permanent value and might better have been omitted. This stout volume (pp. xiv, 612), which is a very full but by no means complete collection of the prolific author's *Gedichte*, concludes with four "Romanzen" forming part of a cycle of epic poems entitled "Rudolf und Ottokar," left unfinished and here printed for the first time. It was evidently his original intention to treat this half-legendary and half-historical subject in the heroic style of the Spanish "Poema del Cid," but he finally abandoned the project, and gave us, instead of a very mediocre epic (for his talent did not lie in that direction), one of the best of his dramas, "König Ottokars Glück und Ende," which, apart from its artistic and intrinsic excellence, has acquired a certain adventitious prominence and political importance on account of its irritative action upon the race susceptibilities of the Czechs.

TOY'S JUDAISM AND CHRISTIANITY.

Judaism and Christianity: A Sketch of the Progress of Thought from Old Testament to New Testament. By Crawford Howell Toy, Professor in Harvard University. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 1890.

THE title of Prof. Toy's book does not so much express the slightness of his performance as the exigency of his ideals, for his "sketch" is an octavo volume of 456 pages. In criticism, as in painting or etching, a sketch may no doubt be "carried farther" and still be a sketch, and Prof. Toy's is carried very far indeed. Mr. Hamerton has said that "it is only the most accomplished artists who can be said to sketch at all, because it is only when the facts of nature are thoroughly known that the most necessary ones can be selected from the mass." Read critics for "artists" and literature for "nature," and his sentence would lose nothing of its truth. In one other particular Prof. Toy's title-page less accurately describes his book than in that already named. The period of which he treats is from Ezra, 450 B. C., to the middle of the second Christian century, but this period is by no means expressed by the terms "from Old Testament to New Testament," so much of the Old Testament was written after Ezra and after the traditional time of Malachi, 397 B. C. Nothing has been more characteristic of Old Testament criticism than its pushing forward of the various books into a later time. In this way great portions of the Pentateuch have been brought nearer to us 500, Deuteronomy 700, the priestly portions 900 years. The prophets have best stood their ground, but these, also, in some cases have been much advanced, Daniel from the sixth century to the second, Isaiah xl.-lxvi. from the eighth century to the sixth, and other parts of it still more, while Joel has been taken from the company of Amos and Hosea in the forefront of the prophets and set five centuries later (with some chapters of Zechariah) in their rear. The Psalms and other "writings," Ecclesiastes, Proverbs, Song of Songs, have tended forward at a much livelier rate than that of the prophets generally, and the consequence of this movement, with that of other books and fragments, is that the period between Malachi and Matthew, which once was a great blank of five centuries, or only partly filled by the Apocrypha, is now seen to be a period of great literary wealth, though much at the expense of the traditional Old Testament of the preceding centuries.

There is something reassuring in Prof. Toy's introductory sections on the general laws of the advance from national to universal religions. They are convincing that the habits of the specialist have not cut him off from that general outlook which is essential to any just opinion of the most isolated phenomenon. In this introduction he argues the dependence of religious development on social conditions, treats of the aggregation of tribal faiths into national religions, of the reactions of religion, science, and ethics on each other, of the relations of great men to their times, and exhibits the actual historical results of these forces and conditions in connection with others of a more external character. There is as much of philosophical breadth and human sympathy as of critical acumen in the whole discussion, and the same is true of the succeeding chapters of the book.

The first of these treats of the literature of the period, from Ezra to Philo, and is characterized by that filling in of the hitherto comparatively vacant centuries which is, we have already said, a notable feature of Biblical criticism in its general course. This is commonly spoken of by the traditionalists as "the attack upon the Bible," though it is evidently the work of scholars who bring to their studies a most tender conscience for the truth and the most loving reverence for the Bible literature. The truth would seem to be that hitherto the bias of traditional opinions has been a powerful brake upon the critic's wheels; that he has too strenuously endeavored to depart as little as possible from the received opinions as to the age and authorship of the books of which the Bible is made up. Prof. Toy's opinions are neither more nor less radical than those of other critics of first-rate ability, but they are remarkably divergent from those commonly received among us. To the "wisdom literature" of the Old Testament and Apocrypha he brings a lively sympathy; and, could he revise the canon, it is evident that the Wisdom of Solomon would be added as a counterblast to Ecclesiastes and the "fierce, intolerant nationalism" of Esther, which "makes no mention of God and has no consciousness of religion." For the apocalyptic literature of the period of which he treats, Prof. Toy has an admiration as qualified as that of Dr. Martineau. Of the opinion of Martineau, following Vischer and Harnack, that the Apocalypse of John is a Jewish work, with Christian additions, there is the briefest mention without approval or dissent. A concluding section of this chapter on the growth of the Old Testament canon, for all its quiet tone, is likely to

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prove somewhat startling to the uninstructed mind.

In the six following chapters different subjects are taken up—"The Doctrine of God," "Subordinate Supernatural Beings," "Man," "Ethics," "The Kingdom of God," "Eschatology"—and the method of treatment is the same throughout: beginning with the earliest books of the period in hand, the course of thought is traced as it flowed onward to the latest. An appendix list of some 1,500 citations suggests the thoroughness of the investigation, but the manner in which the materials are handled is deserving of yet higher praise. Of *odium theologicum* there is as little as in the 'Essays of Elia' or the 'Sketch-Book' of Irving; from polemics it is just as free; and of dogmatism there is none. If, after the manner once suggested by Renan, only the certainties were printed in black ink, the lighter colors would be largely in excess. Withal, there is a naïveté in the presentation of the author's matter that is full of charm. The most radical and disintegrating propositions are stated with what seems to be a serene unconsciousness of their difference from the average opinions of the Christian world. Whether we have here a perfect art or the simplicity of the scholar's absolute engrossment in his search for sound results, we do not know, and it is not necessary to our satisfaction that we should.

The chapter on the doctrine of God reaches its highest point of interest in the exhibition of the Logos doctrine as developed in Judea and Alexandria, which had only to ally itself with the passionate idealization of Jesus in the early church to elevate him into a peculiar if not equal fellowship with deity; never into identity. The idea of the fatherhood was not, we are assured, unfamiliar in the higher religious circles at the beginning of our era; but Jesus made this opinion central to his teachings, and gave to it a human warmth and color it had never had before. The study of the views of inspiration which concludes the chapter is corrective of much popular misapprehension, which is assisted by the careless and rhetorical language of the average pulpiteer. The chapter on subordinate supernatural beings assigns to Satan a less derivative character than has been commonly assigned to him of late. The sharp definiteness with which he is conceived in the New Testament makes it appear that the two last centuries B.C. did much to make concrete an idea which in the Old Testament is thinly scattered, weak, and vague.

The chapter on Man is much the longest in the book, treating of a great variety of subordinate topics, but mainly of the varying conceptions of sin and righteousness. Jesus is represented as much nearer to the doctrines that he found in vogue than to those of Paul and subsequent soteriology. Prof. Toy never touches on the relations of Jesus and Paul without being profoundly interesting and suggestive. His idea is that Paul provided for the religion of Jesus a theological vehicle which made it popular and universal when it might otherwise have perished, but that to throw off the additions of Paul and return to the idea of Jesus is the work of Christian development which is not yet complete. Yet there is admission in at least one respect that Paul's thought was an advance: in the chapter on the Kingdom of God, Jesus is represented as having confined his work and hope entirely to the Jewish nation. The close alliance of his best thought with that of his own people, as current in his time, comes out most strongly in the chapter on Ethics. Prof. Toy finds the ethical teaching of Jesus substantially that of Judaism in his time, but with more enthusiasm and inwardness.

The treatment of Jesus's egoistic sanctions of morality has a more apologetic character than any other part of the whole book. In the chapter on Eschatology there is no comfort for the Andoverian, and other restorationists whose hopes are stayed on the New Testament: "As to the duration of future punishment, the general doctrine of the New Testament is that it is to be without end—it is to endure as long as the blessed life of the righteous." In a concluding chapter nothing could be more moderate than the account of Christian origins:

"There was here an extraordinary concurrence of favorable conditions: a people with a firmly organized monotheistic faith, and in contact with the best ethical thought of the time; a circle within the people conscious of the lacks of the existing system and anxious to establish a higher spirituality; a general belief that God, in accordance with his ancient promises, was about to introduce a new order of things; a man who, by his extraordinary endowments, was able to inspire a select circle of followers with a controlling enthusiasm both for his person as the final deliverer sent by God and, in a germinal way, for those lofty principles of ethical religious life which he set forth in his teaching and illustrated in his conduct—these were the conditions of the birth of Christianity, briefly and roughly stated."

This account differs widely from the more dramatic one which generally obtains among us, and which sharpens the contrast as much as possible between Judaism and nascent Christianity, even Martineau saying that the growth of early Christianity was like that of "a delicate flower from a rotting soil." The main significance of Prof. Toy's book is in its opposition to this rendering. The four centuries before Christianity, which the Christian apologist has generally treated as centuries of decadence, of increasing formalism and lack of spirituality, are treated here as a period of religious growth, of heightening ethics and increasing spirituality. The increasing formalism is, of course, allowed, but the increasing spirituality was not less remarkable. The carrying over of the great body of the Psalms into this period goes far to justify the author's view. Perhaps there is no more crucial sentence in the book than this: "Jesus, in fact, did not announce any new dogma, and there was no reason why his followers should not remain Jews." This does not prevent the recognition that, by the stimulating and organizing power of his personality, he was in the highest sense the founder of a new religion.

A POOR LIFE OF SIR CHARLES NAPIER.

Sir Charles Napier. By Col. Sir William F. Butler. [English Men of Action Series.] Macmillan & Co. 1891.

THIS book is one of those to which the too little appreciated criticism, "The picture would have been better if the painter had taken more pains," may suitably be applied. Sir William Butler is a practised and vigorous writer. He had in Sir Charles Napier a singularly interesting subject. But he has treated his subject in such a hasty and slap-dash way that the chief result of the book is so to quicken our interest in Napier as to make us anxious to learn something precise about him. This so-called "Life" is, in fact, rather a rhapsody upon Napier and soldiering in general, and the selfishness of the rich and the meanness of the "shopkeeping" East India Company, than a statement of those facts in the career of a brilliant and memorable man which are, after all, the necessary things to be known if we are to have a clear impression of him and to judge his work in the world. Two-thirds of the book is comment rather than narrative, and even the narrative is provokingly allusive, leaving us to pick up or conjecture facts which ought to have been explicitly stated. For instance, we are nowhere told in what year Napier was born, nor how old he was when he died, nor what was his paternal ancestry. His grief at his wife's death is referred to, and it is implied that he left a widow, but nothing is said as to the date of either the first or the second marriage, nor is the name of either wife given. He wrote several books, but the references to them are very meagre and vague. We are prepared in several rambling pages to expect an account of his controversy with Outram over the outbreak of the Scinde war, and a number of other controversies which figured largely in the last years of his life, but this account never comes. The book is, indeed, one of the most unbusinesslike and unsatisfactory performances to come from a writer of real talent we have encountered for a long time. Nor is it always accurate in details. A soldier like Sir William Butler ought not, even by inadvertence, to tell us that the battle of Hohenlinden was fought in the Black Forest.

Nevertheless, provoking as it is to have pages of Carlylese given us when we want to know a hundred details about Napier which would have thrown light upon his character, the book is interesting, because there is enough in it of extracts from Napier's own journal, and of the notices of the bits of actual hard fighting he was concerned in to give us some notion of a very striking and peculiar person, one who accomplished much, but might, with better opportunities, have accomplished very much more and left a name second to few in the military annals of England. His career is, on the whole, a sad one, and the sadness of it consists chiefly in this, that so large a part of his life was wasted in inactivity, so that when the chance for doing great things came, not only was his physical strength terribly reduced, but his spirit had contracted, from a long-continued sense of ill-luck and neglect, a certain bitterness and self-assertive pugnacity which made enemies for him wherever he went. Fortune was certainly very unkind to him. He distinguished himself brilliantly in his first battle, the famous fight of Coruña, but the death of More took away the chief whose favor would have secured his advancement. He was severely wounded at Busaco, but was no sooner a colonel than his regiment was sent off to Bermuda, and he missed his chances of taking part in the later Peninsular campaigns of Wellington as well as of being at Waterloo. From 1819 till 1830 he had some intervals of employment in the Ionian Islands, then under British protectorate, and showed his usual energy in laboring for the improvement of the isles, and especially in making those excellent roads which the traveller still admires in Cephalonia. Then, after ten years more of absolute inaction, he received the command of the Northern Military District of England, a post which was in those days no sinecure, for there was much discontent among the masses, and it sometimes looked as if the riots which broke out here and there in the manufacturing and mining regions might gather into a serious insurrection of the suffering classes. Sir Charles showed prompt capacity in arranging the troops and in taking steps for the suppression of disorder. But he astonished his superiors by not infrequently indulging himself in political reflections unfavorable to the existing order of things; for he was in his opinions almost at one with the

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Chartists whose apprehended rising it was his duty to suppress.

At last, in 1841, his chance for real war came. He was sent to India as commander of the Bombay army, and in 1842 went to Scinde to deal with the dangers which threatened them from the Ameers who ruled the country, and who had been brought by the unfortunate Afghan war into strained relations with the British Power. His part in the transactions which followed has been the subject of much controversy and a good deal of censure. Sir William Butler hints at this, and gives a sort of misty apology for his hero, but unfortunately passes away from the subject with a vagueness which is not only provoking, but unfavorable to Napier's reputation—a reputation strong enough to bear the telling of the truth. If he was blameworthy in precipitating the conflict, he showed himself not only a consummate general in bringing it to a swift close by two decisive victories (one of which, the battle of Meanee, ranks very high among the exploits of British soldiers against enormous odds), and in administering strict but benevolent justice in the conquered territories. Napier ought evidently to have been placed in command of the whole Indian army and intrusted with the Sikh war. The short but bloody campaign of 1846-47 would in his hands have been decisive, and the subsequent disaster of Chillianwallah averted. That disaster led to his being sent out again to India as Commander-in-Chief—for he had returned to England in 1847—and his last period of active work was spent in endeavoring to reform the military administration and avert the dangers of disaffection in the native army, dangers in which he foresaw the seeds of the great mutiny of 1857. In his zeal and somewhat too daring self-confidence, he took steps which the Indian Government disapproved (Sir William Butler characteristically omits to state Lord Dalhousie's part in these transactions), and resigned on receiving their reprimand. He returned in 1851, died in 1853—a naturally strong constitution broken by wounds and the terrible sun of Scinde—and lies buried not in Westminster Abbey, but in the military cemetery at Portsmouth.

In Napier's character and career as a leader three points stand out. He had splendid personal daring. He had great promptitude, decision, self-reliance. He had an intense sympathy for and interest in the private soldier, with a corresponding power of evoking the devotion of the private soldier to himself. What he would have been in planning and conducting a long campaign against European enemies and in handling vast masses of men, remains uncertain, because he never had the chance of showing. The army with which he conquered Scinde scarcely exceeded 5,000 men. Meanee was fought with 2,200, against nearly 30,000. Be this as it may, he was an extraordinary man, with a mind not more remarkable for its keenness than for its love of work, and he could scarcely have failed to win his way sooner to the highest posts but for the excess of fighting quality in him. He had a terrible gift for making enemies, a proud spirit, an uncompromising love of justice, and contempt for all men in power whose moral and intellectual eminence he questioned; a hot temper, which struck back quick and hard. No one could be less jealous of real genius, more loyal to his friends, more tender to his mother, his wife, and his children. But those who indulge their pride and impetuosity as Napier did and could not help doing—they were the *défauts de ses qualités*—must expect to find their upward path obstructed as his was. It remains, nevertheless, a disgrace to the English authorities of those days that when the English armies in India so often needed first-rate leaders, they did not employ so brilliant a soldier and vigorous an administrator till he had passed his sixtieth birthday.

A REVIVED CLASSIC.

A Vindication of the Rights of Woman: with Strictures on Political and Moral Subjects. By Mary Wollstonecraft. New edition, with an introduction by Mrs. Henry Fawcett. Scribner & Welford. 1890. Pp. 287.

Upon the theory that women have a claim to existence only as they render the existence of men agreeable and smooth, Mary Wollstonecraft was the first to make a regular and powerful attack. We may or may not agree with Mrs. Fawcett when she says, at the close of an admirable summary of and commentary upon the book whose title we give above, that the women's-rights movement in England and America owes as much to Mary Wollstonecraft as modern political economy owes to her famous contemporary, Adam Smith; but the honor of being first in the field she unquestionably deserves. It is difficult for any one at the present day to form a clear picture of the state of things as regards women at the time her 'Vindication' appeared. The contemporary books written for women and about women are, of course, no longer read, and the scattered allusions that one meets with in other books fail to make a connected impression. The 'Vindication' will serve a most useful purpose now in showing the conditions which it has been a powerful means of changing, as it did then in setting forth their injustice and their folly.

We give some quotations to show the common tenor of opinion which Mary Wollstonecraft set herself to combat. And first, the whole situation is set forth, with the utmost candor and simplicity, in the following passage from Rousseau's 'Émile':

"For this reason, the education of women should always be relative to that of men. To please, to be useful to us, to make us love and esteem them, to educate us when young, and take care of us when grown up, to advise, to console us, to render our lives easy and agreeable—these are the duties of women at all times, and what they should be taught in their infancy."

The virtues which they need are relative to their dependent position:

"The first and most important qualification in a woman is good-nature or sweetness of temper. Formed to obey so imperfect a being as man—often full of vices and always full of faults—she ought to learn betimes even to suffer injustice and to bear the insults of a husband without complaint."

Subtilty and indirection, far from being subjects of reproof, were inculcated as useful qualities. Dr. Gregory, whose book, 'A Legacy to His Daughters,' was a standard work on female propriety at the end of the eighteenth century, recommends constant dissimulation to girls to whom nature has given a robust constitution; a sickly delicacy was considered an indispensable element of feminine charm; and Rousseau says: "Subtilty is a talent natural to the sex, and I am of the opinion that it should be cultivated; it is requisite for us only to prevent its abuse."

Under no circumstances of her life was a woman ever to forget that her sole end and aim was to please her lord and master; every one must share the "sickly qualm" which Mary Wollstonecraft felt at this passage from the Rev. James Fordyce's sermons addressed to women: "Never," he exclaims, "perhaps, does a fine woman *strike more deeply* than when composed into pious recollection; . . . she assumes, without knowing it, superior dignity and new graces." There were no limits to the overstrained modesty which was necessary to fit women to men's taste. Dr. Johnson thought portrait-painting an improper employment for a woman. Staring in men's faces, he observed, is "very indelicate in a female." Another writer says:

"The lady who asked the question whether women may be instructed in the modern system of Botany, consistently with female delicacy, was accused of prudery; nevertheless, if she had proposed the question to me, I should certainly have answered: 'They cannot.'"

Although the devotion of men was the only object for which women lived, they were counselled never to let their own sensibility become apparent; female modesty was held to be outraged by the confession of love from a woman to a man, even when that man was her husband—she must always strive to make it appear that her physical and mental weakness had caused her to yield to force. It follows from all this that cowardice, as well as physical weakness, and ignorance, pretended when not real, were an essential part of a woman's attractions. Dr. Gregory says: "But if you happen to have any learning, keep it a profound secret, especially from the men, who generally look with a jealous and malignant eye on a woman of great parts and a cultivated understanding."

Against this immoral and indecent state of opinion concerning women, Mary Wollstonecraft uttered a vigorous protest. As a specimen of fine and impassioned reasoning, her book has seldom been surpassed. Its faults are its too great length and its repetitions; they result from the haste with which it was written (it was finished in six weeks), but that same haste lends it a fire and a passion which more pruning might have robbed it of. Her main plea is that women should be allowed to cultivate their understanding, and that men should be content with rational fellowship instead of slavish obedience. She urged that women should be placed in a station where they would advance instead of retarding the progress of the human race. She showed that if women be not prepared by education to become the companions of men, they will stop the progress of knowledge; and that, so far from knowledge and freedom inducing women to neglect their duties to their families, 'the more understanding women acquire, the more they will be attached to their duty—comprehending it; for unless they comprehend it, . . . no authority can make them discharge it in a virtuous manner."

For those who grow impatient under the restrictions from which women still suffer, it is a source of courage to note the immense changes that have taken place in their status in the hundred years since the writing of this book. The change in the worth of women as human beings has been correspondingly great. Mary Wollstonecraft accuses the women of her day of cunning, superstition, want of generosity, injustice, and gross mismanagement of their children and of their households. No such gloomy picture could be drawn of their characteristics now. Maurice said, as quoted by Mrs. Fawcett, "In any sphere wherein women feel their responsibility, they are, as a rule, far more conscientious than men." There is no doubt that this is true, and there is no doubt that as they interest themselves more and more in theoretical politics, in political economy, in social reform, and as they feel more and more the necessity of giving effect to their wishes at

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the polls, they will more and more represent what is admirable and useful in the citizen and in the human being. Mary Wollstonecraft, while she is chiefly occupied with more urgent matters, did not hesitate to claim for women a share in the advantages of parliamentary representation. She pointed out that women are peculiarly well fitted for the practice of medicine, and she anticipated Ibsen, almost in his very words, in preaching that "their first duty is to themselves as rational creatures." What yet remains to be done, in England and America at least, ought not to be long of accomplishment—will not be long of accomplishment when women themselves have learned to recognize its necessity.

Facsimiles of Manuscripts in European Archives relating to America. 1773–1783. Vol. VI. Nos. 565 to 646. London: B. F. Stevens.

THIS volume is made up principally of papers concerning the attempt of Silas Deane to obtain help for the United States from France in the year 1776. That envoy was active and persistent, making bargains with Beaumarchais and others, engaging and despatching officers, writing long minutes ("memoires" he called them) on the resources of the united colonies, the justice of their cause and the interest of France in the quarrel. Deane's services have met with scant recognition. The American Government suspected the good faith of his dealings with Beaumarchais, and treated not only that adventurer, but their own agent, very shabbily. The officers who were sent over made a great deal of trouble, until Du Coudray was fortunately drowned and Conway finally discredited. As for the minutes, the longest and most elaborate of them was that of the 24th of September, 1776, of which Deane wrote to Congress that he had been confined to his chamber and pen for some weeks in drawing it up. Alas! we may read in the facsimile the note of the French Foreign Office, "*Pièce non traduite*," and therefore be certain that it never reached the eye of King Louis XVI., or even of the Count of Vergennes, for neither of them could read English. Still it may have influenced the mind of Gérard, the Minister's right-hand man in American matters. The paper contains one suggestion at least which might have had weight with the French court, for it confirmed a suspicion already in the minds of the King's advisers. This was that in case of a reconciliation between Great Britain and her colonies, their united forces might be turned to the conquest of the French West Indies. On the other hand, Deane was ready to suggest, as one of the bases of a treaty between France and the United States, that any British ship found on the coast of North America, South America, or the islands adjacent and belonging thereto, within a certain degree or distance to be agreed on, should be for ever thereafter considered as lawful prize to any of the subjects of France, Spain, or the united colonies and treated as such, as well in peace as in war; nor should any of the contracting parties ever admit any British ship into any port in America, North or South, or the adjacent islands; nor should that article ever be altered but by common consent of the three governments.

The ultimate decision of the question of an alliance, with all its probable consequences of peace or war, rested after all with the King of France. It is from this circumstance that a long paper bearing the name of "Pfeffel," and found in the French Archives of Foreign Affairs, derives an interest. Louis XVI. was a man of weak mind, but active conscience. It was therefore necessary for Vergennes to give him moral grounds for a decision, but those grounds might be more plausible than reasonable. This would appear, from internal evidence, to have been the object of Pfeffel's paper, which is dated October, 1776. The question which the writer sets himself to answer is whether the eternal laws of justice permit other Powers, and especially those which have been objects of rivalry to England, to contribute to the ruin of that country. This question implies two others: whether there are cases in which subjects can legitimately abandon the rule of their sovereign; and whether, in those cases, foreign Powers may meddle in the domestic quarrels of a State, and favor the defection of its subjects.

As to the first of these questions Pfeffel, while adhering to some extent to the doctrine of natural and inalienable rights, is yet courtier enough to distinguish carefully between absolute and limited monarchies. Under a despotism he holds that the nation may rise against its sovereign only when he transgresses its fundamental laws, as by attempting to change the order of succession or by atrocious tyranny. The rights of nations are much more extended in a limited monarchy. All the laws that have there been passed to limit the sovereign authority are a part of the fundamental code of the State. They mark the extent of the prince's power and the way in which he must apply it. If he goes beyond the limits which are set for him, his commands are unlawful, and the nation is not bound to obey him. In attacking the Constitution of the State, the prince breaks the contract which united him to his people, and frees the latter from its allegiance. All that he can then ask of the outraged nation is, that it should conduct its opposition with those shades and gradations which are in accordance with the respect due to the sovereign majesty.

The Dutch religiously observed these degrees when they threw off their allegiance to Spain, but the English have frequently neglected them. They did so especially in 1688, when King James II. was deposed after he had desisted from the unlawful acts which he had previously committed, had released the bishops whom he had imprisoned for resisting him, and had solemnly promised to govern for the future only by lawful methods. On this occasion the revolution was carried out by the Prince of Orange, with the assistance of the Dutch Provinces. This revolution is constantly referred to in British acts of Parliament as lawful, and it was in fact that which opened the way for the succession to the English throne of the House of Hanover.

From these facts there follow some very interesting consequences, viz.: that, according to English jurisprudence, the prince has only to violate some law of the State, even if the law be not fundamental, to deserve to be deprived of his power; and that the State may scorn the reparation which he offers or actually performs; that the State may then meet in extraordinary assembly and change its form of government; that foreign Powers may provoke revolutions of this sort, and may furnish aid necessary to their accomplishment.

The writer applies these doctrines to the American Revolution. The English colonies in North America differ, according to him, from all other colonies, whether of ancient or modern times, in that the colonists carried with them to America all their rights as Englishmen; and among those rights that of voting their own laws and of consenting to the taxes they are to pay is held to be essential. Under these circumstances the colonies may rise in revolt, if their rights be infringed, and may call on foreigners to help them. The only difference between them and the English of 1688 is all in favor of the colonists, for the latter have observed all those shades of procedure which were conspicuously neglected in the earlier revolution. The Americans began by remonstrances and protestations. When these were scorned, they opposed the execution of unconstitutional regulations, but obeyed all rightful laws. Only when the mother country announced the intention of sustaining her illegal conduct by force of arms did the colonies combine for defence. Nor did they finally renounce their dependence until they had seen their cities destroyed with fire and sword, and the three British kingdoms and a part of Germany united to subjugate or utterly to destroy them.

The writer concedes that it is contrary to the law of nations for one country to interfere in the domestic concerns of another. But when a tyrant tramples on the laws of humanity; when he violates the most sacred obligations; when the oppressed nation, after trying peaceable means in vain, breaks at last the bonds which attached it to its sovereign and makes itself independent, so that in fact the State is dissolved, then foreign Powers may certainly judge the quarrel on its merits, and help the party which shall seem to have right on its side.

Having reached this satisfactory conclusion, Pfeffel proceeds to support it by historical instances. He mentions the help given by England to the people of Rochelle against Louis XIII. of France, and to the House of Braganza in revolting against Spain and establishing the kingdom of Portugal. But most he relies on the assistance furnished by Queen Elizabeth to the Low Countries when they threw off the yoke of Philip II. With great skill the writer points out the devious course pursued by the English Queen, her professions of friendship to Philip, her offers of mediation, her secret help to the Dutch, and her attempts to rule them. The resemblance of her action as here described to that which Vergennes was actually urging upon the King of France is made thoroughly obvious, and a course of duplicity, repugnant in fact to the principles of the feeble young monarch, is shown to be in accordance with royal precedent.

Did Louis XVI. really listen to the suggestions of this paper? The place whence it comes renders such a listening not improbable. Already he was partly committed to a dishonest line of action, and had given aid in money to a rebellion against a friendly Power. Hardly three months after the date of Pfeffel's paper, the King approved with his own hand a document evidently meant to be read to Franklin and Deane, assuring them of his good wishes to the united colonies. Yet peace was maintained with England for more than a year longer, and the British Ambassador was put off with excuses for all his complaints. It takes, indeed, a stronger man than Louis XVI. to believe that statesmanship is not a cheating game, and to act up to that belief.

Wild Life on a Tidal Water. The Adventures of a House-Boat and her Crew. By P. H. Emerson. Illustrated by 30 photo-etchings, by P. H. Emerson and T. F. Goodall Together with an Appendix, "Breydon, Past and Present." London: Sampson Low & Co. 1890.

WE have before had occasion to praise the singularly attractive work of Mr. Emerson's pen in sketching scenes of wild life in East

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Anglia and on the Norfolk Broads; and in the present volume we find the same delicacy of observation and truth of rendering, together with a certain sentiment of the landscape hard to characterize; and, besides, there is a stronger literary style than hitherto. The scene is a stretch of tide-water at Yarmouth of large compass, called Breydon, some four miles and a half long by one and a half broad, lying at the mouth of the River Yare; it is the first thing seen by the migratory birds, since it reaches out into the North Sea, and hence more rare birds are said to be found there than anywhere else in England. At all events, its low-lying flats and shallows at the ebb-tide seem to have more than the usual fulness of life on the edges of the sea, and in Mr. Emerson the place finds an artist as fond of natural history in its own home as of landscape effects.

The charm of the book, however, does not lie so much in what it tells of the look and behavior of birds and fishes, crabs and eels, and the like, as in the reality with which it conveys the sense of the ocean in the full range of its life, in storm and calm, in color and atmosphere and tone, in its ugliness and dark underworld. These descriptions of mist and mirage, of the ooze and green grasses, the miniature battles of the crabs, the flying of the wounded bird, the fishers and the passing boats, the changing sky and wind, and the increasing loneliness as the rising tide isolates the boat at its moorings and removes the land far off—all these scenes and incidents and moods will be welcome to any lover of the sea, and he will find in them a rare truthfulness. Mr. Emerson says that he writes his descriptions always upon the spot, and that this gives them what merit they have. It adds to their effect that he does not omit any of the unpleasant features, the gross and rude things that belong to the tides, but he has the skill not to offend; he is a realist, whether in his water-colors or in his mud-photography, and in both his work is novel, sincere, and admirable.

In one point he has been especially successful. He gives the amphibiousness that always belongs to the sea. The taste for character is genuine with him, and it is clear that by virtue of it he was able to make friends with the fishers and fowlers, and to draw from them in their dialect not only "yarns" of the ocean, but also their superstitions, their ideas (or what served as such), their life as it was in their own hearts. There is the same reality in his report of their talk as in his drawing of the public houses where he chatted with them over the friendly glass of rum; and these living pictures of the rough interiors and their figures contrast happily, or blend happily, as one chooses to think, with the impression of the sea which was their element. The sea, in its nature, its wild life, and the human beings who live by its spoil, is the subject of all these chapters; and the text is saved from the cloying of mere description by an occasional incident or conversation or adventure. There is a drowning accident, for example, which for true realistic power is very remarkable even in these days of so much would-be realism; it is pathetic in itself, but the circumstances are so rendered, and the words and actions of the spectators are so directly set down, that it seems the thing itself. This, however, is fortunately only an episode: the body of the book is in the mood of a free, natural love of outdoors, of the fresh sea, and all that it affects with its wide presence.

The illustrations are thirty photo-etchings of the scenes from plates made at the time. They are mostly of the sea, its coasts and tideways, its ships, the wharves, and the fishermen, with a few glimpses of old Yarmouth streets and roofs, the rope-walk, the sail-loft, and like subjects. Mr. Emerson states that he was the first person to study and publish etchings from photographic plates taken from nature, and he tells something of his experiments. The present plates were etched by Mr. Colls and Mr. Dawson, but hereafter Mr. Emerson will etch his own plates, a practice which he recommends as necessary for those who would do this sort of work. He has experimented with all kinds of printing-papers, he adds, and with excellent results. In the present volume he has seen and approved all the prints as well as the proofs, and he thinks this care is also necessary if the original work is to be justly rendered. In all this one recognizes the same fidelity and exactness which is to be observed in his literary sketching. The success of these illustrations is excellent, as a rule; they vary in vivacity and in the quality of their tone, but in each case a definite effect has been sought and frequently has been finely given. The pictures are not closely related to the text, but come in like a margin in which the feeling of the text is found again in another mode of artistic expression. The entire volume, which is a beautifully printed folio, is thus a sea-book. At the end is a map of Breydon and an account of the birds which have been found there, with some hunter's notes, by R. Fielding Harmer.

An Elementary Latin Dictionary. By Charlton T. Lewis, Ph.D. Harper & Bros. 1891.

DR. LEWIS'S new work is substantially an abridgment of his 'Latin Dictionary for Schools,' which appeared some two years ago. All that is new in it (except the correction of such errors as have been found in the earlier book) is the extension of the vocabulary to include words used by Catullus, Tibullus, Propertius, and Tacitus (in his larger works). It was a pity that these authors were not included in the 'School Dictionary,' and a still greater pity that the call for them was not as loud here as in England. On the other hand, the examples under the different words are limited to those which are typical or peculiarly instructive. Moreover, reference is made only to the author who used the words, and not to the exact place in his writings in which he used them; further, all but a few proper names have been excluded. In these ways much space has been saved, and yet the examples still remain amply sufficient for the needs of those for whom the book is intended.

Being an abridgment of a work that is already well known, and that has been received in all quarters with admiration and approval, there is no need of extended remarks upon details of the present book. It is without any doubt the most scholarly and correct elementary Latin dictionary that has ever been published in English. Our only fear is that the very excellence of this small volume may lead students who are no longer beginners to be content with it, and not to feel that they ought to own the 'School Dictionary,' and, finally, the largest of Dr. Lewis's three works. Doubtless every college teacher has felt the difficulties that arise from the unwillingness of his pupils to use a more advanced and larger lexicon than the one they had at school. It will be a comfort, however, for teachers to feel that this book is likely to supplant a certain elementary dictionary published in England, and very generally used in this country, full though it is of antiquated notions, especially in the matter of orthography.

It is to be hoped that Dr. Lewis will not yet rest content with the laurels which he has already won. There remains still a task for which he has himself cleared the way—the revision of his large lexicon. In spite of the many improvements which he introduced, and the careful toil which he bestowed upon that revision of Andrews's Freund, nobody knows better than he the faults and inconsistencies which remain in it. It is much that is asked of him, for there are few tasks so arduous and so uninspiring as dictionary-making. But for him success is assured in advance, as well as the gratitude of classical scholars throughout the world.

The following notes on the 'Elementary Dictionary' are offered more as contributions to further work than in the spirit of criticism. Under *condico*, the example from Livy with the dative should not be quoted without the very curious genitive which seems to be somehow connected with the verb. A more literal meaning should be assigned to the word *sagmen*. In the example cited *sagmina* are "tokens of inviolability," a sort of safe-conduct, which happened in that instance to be the tuft of grass borne by the *fetiales*. Under *defungor* the ablative *poena* cited is instrumental and not "dependent" on the verb. For *contaminare fabulas* Dr. Lewis may feel inclined to adopt Prof. F. D. Allen's simple explanation (in the Proceedings of the American Philological Association, 1888) instead of the forced traditional one. Of *ellum* Prof. Lane has shown that it must be composed of *em illum*, and not of *en illum*.

A Treatise on Extradition and Interstate Rendition, with Appendices containing Treaties and Statutes, etc. By John Bassett Moore, Third Assistant Secretary of State of the United States. Boston: The Boston Book Co. 2 vols., pp. 1,556.

WE have here an exhaustive treatise, and a thoroughly useful manual for the practitioner in all extradition cases. The duties of Mr. Moore as Assistant Secretary of State have included the investigation and report upon international cases of extradition, and have led to his preparation of this important work. He distinguishes logically between the cases arising either in the application of international comity to the rendition of fugitives from justice, or in the enforcement of treaties, from those which come under the Constitution of the United States when persons accused of crime in one State escape to another. This latter he very properly describes as the application of our own law (constitutional or statute) to domestic cases arising in different parts of one nation, and to it he prefers to give the name of Interstate Rendition. Extradition he reserves as the name for taking an accused person beyond the national boundaries to answer for his alleged crime in a foreign country.

While this distinction is useful as well as logical, it is still consistent with the fact that interstate rendition, like many other things in our Federal Constitution, bears the marks of the *quasi*-independence of the colonies from which the nation was formed, and has strong analogies with the practice of international extradition. As the subject is developed it also becomes evident in an interesting way that international extradition has been rapidly growing into a system which approximates closely to the domestic code enforced by the Federal Constitution. Nearly the whole civilized world has, by treaties, entered into a sort of federation which, we may reasonably hope, is only one chapter in that larger federation.

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which shall systematize all matters of common interest, and provide for their conduct and their settlement without danger of quarrel or dispute.

The steps of the progress are full of instruction. When nations were ignorant of each other, there was hardly a distinction between an alien and an alien enemy. An English king would hardly think of giving up a man to the Emperor of Germany sooner than he would to the Sultan of Morocco or the Caliph of Bagdad. The growth of knowledge begot an increased good-will. Commerce created good-neighborhood. As surely as the law-merchant grew out of the custom of merchants in international commerce, so did the comity of nations which assisted in the enforcement of criminal justice grow out of the intimate acquaintanceship which followed the intercourse of trade. The nations of Christendom, acknowledging a common standard of morality, felt the obligation of reciprocal assistance in the preservation of order and the punishment of crime. The varying codes and the diverse schemes of punishment made it a slow process, for it seemed shocking to send a man abroad to die for that which would only be punished with imprisonment or fine at home. So the comity was considered a thing rather recommended by the law of nations than commanded by it, and governments began, tentatively, to return criminals in their discretion as a mark of favor rather than as the performance of an obligation. They were willing to apply the principle to crimes *mala in se*, the felonies declared such by the consensus of civilized custom, whilst they declined to apply it to the *mala prohibita*, the somewhat artificial offences created by statute.

But the very discussion of the subject was a powerful educator. Laws tended rapidly to assimilate, and harmony grew up, the scale of offences and the measure of punishment becoming more and more alike. It is most profitable now to look over the long list of modern governments which have provided by treaty for the extradition of criminals, and to see how these numerous treaties are in fact an international code having the force of positive statute among nearly all the progressive peoples of the globe. It is very instructive, too, to note what is excluded as well as what is included in this code. The rights of free thought, of political opinion, are jealously preserved for the individual. The right of asylum for the voluntary exile is broadly recognized. The definition of essential vice has been made more definite. The wickedness of crime is distinguished from a violation of law which may be conscientious. The common enemy of mankind is separated from the well-meaning enthusiast who may have challenged with noble motives the law he seeks to repeal. Perhaps few of the nations which made these treaties realized fully, as they were added one by one to the long catalogue, how well they builded. A similar series of treaties in regard to arbitrations of disputes would add another great chapter to the international code, and another strong link to the "federation of the world."

The provisions for interstate rendition are part of a chapter in our domestic history hardly less significant for us than the other is for the civilized world. It is curious to note how much of the hesitation, the disputing, the wire-drawn interpretation, the conditional obedience in the several States grew out of slavery, that cause of all our woes. But for it we should hardly have cared now whether a man were carried from Massachusetts to Georgia to be tried, or from New York to Albany. There was no true faith in the impartial justice that would be awarded when the offence was related to the great sectional controversy, and the universal instinct was to protect him who was charged with a political crime, by limiting very closely the right of rendition in all cases. With the death of slavery, it is plainly seen that in this respect, also, we have become much more truly one people.

Mr. Moore has not devoted great space to such philosophical considerations, but he has given rich material on which to base them. He has made his work a thorough history of his subject and a trustworthy hand-book for the practitioner, in doctrine, in array of precedents, in practical forms, and in useful suggestions based on experience. It is a marked advance upon other books on the subject, and will be a standard authority.

Ein Lebenslauf: Aufzeichnungen, Erinnerungen und Bekenntnisse von Julius Froebel. Stuttgart: Cotta. 1890. Vol. I., pp. 608. 8vo.

FROEBEL'S 'A Life-Career,' the first volume of which has recently appeared, is one of the most charming of contemporary German autobiographies. The author, now in his eighty-fifth year and still fresh and vigorous in body and mind, was the son of a country parson in Thuringia, and the opening chapters, in which are recorded the reminiscences of his childhood, give an enchanting idyllic picture of modest middle-class German life at the beginning of the present century. The poverty of his parents threw the boy in early youth upon his own resources, and compelled him to earn, as topographical draughtsman, cartographer, and lithographer in the Black Forest and Alsace, the means of pursuing his studies at Berlin, Jena, and Munich. He won the esteem and enjoyed the friendship of Alexander von Humboldt, to whose influence he owed his appointment as professor of mineralogy in the University at Zurich, where, in addition to his academical duties, he also conducted a book-publishing establishment, chiefly, as it appears, for the purpose of revolutionary agitation and propagandism in Germany.

In 1848 Froebel went to Mannheim as editor of the *Deutsche Volkszeitung*, a paper issued by the publisher Hoff in the interests of the German democracy, and the first number of which appeared, ominously enough, on the 1st of April. In this enterprise he was associated with Hecker, Herwegh, Jacoby, Ruge, Struve, and other leaders of the revolutionary party. The editorial office was a Noah's ark full of clean and unclean beasts. Every collaborator had his crotchet, upon the realization of which he made the safety of the universe depend. Gustav Struve saw no hope for mankind except in dietetic reform and phrenology. A crank named Ernst Mahner seated himself naked on a block of ice in midwinter and floated down the Main, in order to show the inhabitants of Frankfort how the human race, rendered effeminate and servile by civilization, could be restored to its primitive health and independence. A kindred spirit was Edgar Bauer, who regarded clothes as the curse of humanity and confounded nudity with purity. Habiliments were in his eyes the primal source of all evil habits. When Froebel had occasion to call on him in Berlin, he found this prophet of the new era sitting in an Edenic state on the sofa and receiving his friends. In the presence of this gymnosophist, our author, who was well attired and actually wore gloves, had the appearance of an inveterate Philistine and thorough-paced reactionary.

Of all his colleagues, however, the most offensive was Edward Pelz, a vulgar demagogue, who, by the skilful use of hollow and high-sounding phrases, had acquired great popularity and become the head of a large "Laborers' Union." He was shrewd, self-seeking, wonderfully expert in inventing pretexts for levying on the working classes frequent contributions, which flowed ultimately into his own pockets, and may be regarded, in some respects, as the forerunner of the Walking Delegate of to-day. It was the recollection of this man that led Froebel to record the following reflections in his memoirs: "Political expediency requires us to associate with all sorts of people, but personal honesty always remains the only safe basis of profitable co-operation even in party politics; and to overlook this factor is a political error. The filth which proceeds from a corrupt individual defiles the cause which he represents, and in no form of government is it so essential to insist upon nobility and integrity of character as in a democracy."

Froebel was elected a member of the German National Assembly which held its sittings in the Paul's Church at Frankfort from May 18, 1848, to May 30, 1849, and, as one of the four delegates sent with an address of congratulation to the revolutionists in Vienna, narrowly escaped being shot with Robert Blum. The collapse of the republican movement in Baden forced Froebel to flee, and the former professor and politician settled down in New York as a soap-boiler. It is to his credit and in strict conformity with his antecedents that, although he soon began to write for the press and to take part in public affairs, he confined his dealings in the matter of "soap" to the common commercial article that cleans and not corrupts, and never soiled his hands with the sort now so lavishly used for lubricating the party machine in a political campaign.

Froebel's love of adventure induced him in 1850 to go to Central America as a newspaper correspondent and subsequently to act as agent for a commercial house in the frontier provinces of Mexico and the United States. His power of keen observation and the lively sense of humor which stood him in such good stead among the crack-brained social experimenters at Berlin and Frankfort in 1848, and kept his own idealizing impulses from drifting into like extravagances, render his descriptions of society in those semi-civilized communities not only fascinating reading, but also a valuable contribution to the history of a transition period unknown to the annals of European nations and quite unique even in the remarkably rapid expansion and evolution of American civilization.

He spent six months at Chihuahua, which interested him as a mineralogist on account of its once famous silver mines. Among the female portion of the population prostitution was general, and the greed of the clergy compelled the poorer classes to dispense with the marriage ceremony altogether. "The native inhabitants were by no means lacking in intelligence and a certain degree of culture. In a company of Mexican officers I was asked the name of my birth-place. 'Rudolstadt,' I replied. 'Ah—— Schwarzburg-Rudolstadt,' remarked one of the officers. 'There is also a principality Schwarzburg-Sondershausen.' I looked at the man with astonishment; whereupon he added laughingly: 'Do you think we Mexicans are barbarians and know nothing of the world?'" On an excursion with a German named Feldmann, who had lived in the country several years, they stopped over night in the village of Carretas, where they en-

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joyed the hospitality of a distinguished resident of the place. Beds were prepared for them in the large hall of the house, and, as Froebel was quite exhausted by the day's journey, he expressed to his companion the hope that their kind host with his wife and beautiful daughter would withdraw in order that they might retire to rest. "For that you will have to wait a long time," said Feldmann; "the good people are staying to see us undress." "And in fact we were obliged to go through with this business in the presence of the ladies, who observed all our movements and examined every article of our wardrobe with the greatest attention, but with irreproachable decorousness and delicacy of manner, and, after we had lain down, bade us a friendly goodnight."

Froebel arrived September 30, 1854, in San Francisco, where he edited a German paper of liberal and anti-slavery tendencies, the *San Francisco Journal*, and came thereby into unpleasant competition with a rival sheet of ultramontane and pro-slavery proclivities, called the *Democrat*. He found life in San Francisco not only richer in humor, but also far more poetic and more spiritful (*geistvoller*) than elsewhere in the United States:

"The very sight of motley groups of men on the streets suggests scenes and situations in some great romance full of adventurous characters and incidents, unusual destinies, and developments of power. However different the persons thrown together in this land may be, all of them, from the conscientious merchant to the swindler and defrauder, from the thorough man of science to the most shameless charlatan, from the puritanic reformer and missionary to the incendiary and highway robber, have one thing in common, namely, extraordinary understanding and extraordinary energy. Without these qualities no individual could maintain himself here. It is therefore not without some reason that every Californian prides himself more or less on belonging to the élite of the human race; this, however, must be understood of the evil as well as of the good, although I have always found the good preponderating over the evil. . . . I can recall numerous crimes and some prodigious rascalities, but these were more than outweighed by noble traits of character and an earnest and general endeavor to improve."

"It is also a mistake to suppose that there was a lack of intellectual intercourse in San Francisco; on the whole, the people were as cultivated, humane, and amiable as in any European city, only there was a greater proportion of men of large experience and tried qualities, and endowed with keener powers of understanding than are to be met with anywhere in the Old World."

In 1855 Froebel sailed for New York via Nicaragua, where he had been before as agent of an interoceanic canal company. In 1856 he married the Countess Caroline von Armansperg, daughter of the Bavarian Minister and Greek Chancellor under King Otto, and returned to Europe in the following year. This repatriation forms the conclusion of the first volume. The second volume will record the events of his subsequent career as politician and publicist, and his experience in the consular and diplomatic service of the German Empire.

La Réforme Française avant les Guerres Civiles, 1512-1559. Par Mme. C. Coignet. Paris: Fischbacher.

FROM her study of the different phases of the French Reformation, Mme. Coignet is convinced that for France the sixteenth century was one of those solemn moments when a slight accident might radically change the direction of the nation's development. As a whole, the people were, she thinks, inclined to enter the reform movement. Up to the time when the civil wars had given rise to fanaticism, only a few, grouped around Diana of Poitiers, the Constable Montmorency, and Cardinal de Tournon, supported the policy of persecution. Indeed, "Francis I. might have established the Reformation in France more easily than Henry VIII. in England." "For what did the nation's destiny wait, then? For an Anne Boleyn, perhaps."

Mme. Coignet's interesting descriptions treat the principal features of the period under discussion with, generally speaking, sufficient fulness. Her explanations throw especial light on the obscure history of the prosecutions for heresy under the Edicts of Francis I. and Henry II. From a bill presented by a worthy executioner named Rousseau to the Parlement of Paris in 1553, the comfortable heretic of these less strenuous days may learn that it would have cost the State but twenty-two sous to have religiously quartered him in that twilight of the "Ages of Faith," though the knife would have added sixty-one sous to the charge. There was little room in the world at that time for consistent believers in the relativity of human knowledge. In fact, Geneva would have been quite as uncongenial as Paris. Mme. Coignet sets forth in its ugly nakedness the well-meant but odious tyranny which Calvin established there. It should not be inferred, however, that she fails to appreciate the great work Calvin so unselfishly accomplished. Her chapter describing this gains all the force of a striking contrast from the fact that it is preceded by her account of the disagreeable aspects of the Geneva régime.

It may be said that in a few instances Mme. Coignet does not seem to have been able to give sufficient weight to opposing views on important historical questions. She insists that the French Reformation was a purely national movement, neither inspired nor directed from without. No one will attempt to deny that it bore the stamp of its nationality distinctly upon all its phases, and yet the unprejudiced historian must acknowledge that Luther's influence at least furnished a strong impulse. Mme. Coignet seems disinclined to grant Luther any share at all. In discussing the origin of the movement she refers to him only in the most incidental manner, adding a rather meagre account of the German Reformation near the close of the volume. Nevertheless, there is some very good evidence to show how important, though indirect, a part Luther played in arousing the French from their ecclesiastical slumbers. The proofs are so good that the judicial Von Polenz, in his history of French Calvinism, calls the early period of the French Reformation "der lutherisch-französischen Reformation." He quotes, among other things, from a contemporary diary kept by a certain Hemont of La Rochelle, the words, "The trumpet which Luther blew in Germany in 1517 waked all the spirits up in France." The fact that the French reformers were so universally called Lutherans, Polenz cannot believe to be utterly without significance. Mme. Coignet thinks this cry originated in the attempt to stigmatize the efforts at reform as revolutionary, as they then threatened to be in Germany. The language of Franz Lambert, who went to Germany soon after he was converted, seems quite conclusive evidence of Luther's influence in France. Lambert, in his commentary on Hosea, wrote: "There come out of our France counts, knights, nobles, and others to see the master workman Martin Luther." Moreover, we must not forget that Louis Berquin got his inspiration largely from Luther's writings. Mme. Coignet's attitude on this question is apparently the reason why she deigns but a few words in a foot-note about the projects for the reconciliation of the faiths which Francis I. laid before Melanchthon.

It is somewhat surprising that the author should not have noticed her error in stating that Luther burned the Papal bull at Wittenberg, November 20, 1520. Unfortunately this is not the only case of inaccuracy in the use of dates. When she refers to the doctrine of the "Three Marys" (p. 43), she inadvertently includes the mother of Jesus among them.

A Dictionary of Electrical Words, Terms, and Phrases. By Edwin F. Houston, A.M. New York: The W. I. Johnston Co. 12mo.

THE work before us is interesting from more than one point of view. It is an encyclopædia rather than a dictionary, aiming to make definitions clear by a certain amount of explanation and illustration; and within a moderate compass it presents a very striking picture of the immense fertility of modern electrical science as illustrated by the richness of the electrical vocabulary. The definitions are, as a rule, very satisfactory, being both clear and concise. There are exceptions, and we may—since the critic must be critical—cite the definitions of *hysteresis* in the supplement, neither of which would give to a person not very familiar with the subject of magnetism any idea of what is meant by the term. The non-electrical part of the work is the most defective; thus we find under the head of "grammeatom" the strange statement that the grammeatom represents the number of calories (or units of heat) required to raise the temperature of the substance through 1° C. A calorimeter is defined as "an instrument for measuring the quantity of heat *possessed* by a given weight or volume of a body at a given temperature." Now we do not know, and perhaps never shall know, what quantity of heat a body contains; but we may usually determine what quantity of heat it is necessary to add to a body in order to raise its temperature a given number of degrees. It is rather startling, under the head of coefficients of linear expansion, to find the antiquated table of Lavoisier and Laplace. Under the head "Equivalent, Chemical," it is stated that the chemical equivalent is different from the atomic weight. Sometimes it is, and sometimes it is not; the statement is misleading. Under the heading "Element, Positive," a table of symbols, equivalents, and specific gravities is given which contains an extraordinary number of numerical errors, and which is simply worthless. On the other hand, the purely electrical and magnetic part of the work is far better, and the book is really interesting and valuable. It is to be hoped that in a second edition the author will correct the errors of the first. The woodcuts are very numerous and excellent.

Essays, Reviews, and Addresses. By James Martineau. Selected and revised by the Author. I. Personal: Political. Longmans, Green & Co. 1890.

THE series of which this volume is the first contemplates only four volumes, but we are not left to conjecture on what principles the selection will be made that can reduce the scattered work of sixty years within such narrow limits: "A few very early essays have been excluded, as too perversely steeped in the spirit of a discarded philosophy; but else, papers have been marked for rejection only where the interest was obsolete or not desirable to revive." It is evident that these canons have been

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rigidly applied. It would appear that Dr. Martineau has put his best foot forward, for he is nowhere more successful than in his studies of personal forces in philosophy and religion, and we have twelve such in this volume (three in one article), with three political essays. Three of the personal studies—of Priestley, Channing, and Parker—are in reality three chapters of Unitarian development. Dr. Martineau began as an associationist in psychology and a determinist in morals, but the Priestley essay, written in 1885, shows him already questioning his master's thought. The essay on Channing (1849) contains some severe strictures on American Abolitionists, and they are repeated in "The Slave Empire in the West," a very elaborate article written in 1857. It is their non-political policy that he cannot forgive or understand. The article on Parker was in 1846 a singularly brave response to the radical theology of that much-enduring man. This, with the articles on Priestley and Arnold, was republished in America in a volume selected by Starr King in 1852, and the articles "Comte" and "Personal Influences in Theology: Newman, Coleridge, Carlyle," were republished here with others in 1866; but both volumes have probably long been out of print.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abbott, Evelyn. Pericles and the Golden Age of Athens. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 50 cents.
Ames, Fisher. A Practical Guide to Whist. Charles Scribner's Sons. 75 cents.
Baldy, Alice M. A Romance of a Spanish Nun. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 50 cents.
Belton, J. D. A Literary Manual of Foreign Quotations. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Cabin and Plantation Songs as Sung by the Hampton Students. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Conway, M. D. George Washington's Rules of Civility. U. S. Book Co.
Cox, S. The Book of Ecclesiastes. A. C. Armstrong & Son. $1.50.
Critic. Vol. XIV. The Critic Co.
Essays on Road-Making and Maintenance and Road Laws. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press.
Goncourt, E. and J. Germinie Lacerteux. Chicago: Laird & Lee.
Gribble, T. G. Preliminary Survey and Estimates. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.25.
Jerome, J. K. Told After Supper. Henry Holt & Co.
Lowe, R. W. Thomas Betterton. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.
Portraits and Photographs: An Album for the People. Charles E. Merrill & Co. $1.
Quain's Elements of Anatomy. 10th ed. Vol. I. Parts 1, 2. Longmans, Green & Co.
Rahl, Gottfried. Gedichte. Leipzig: Albert Möller.
Reid, W. T. Life, Letters and Friendships of Richard Monckton Milnes. 2 vols. Cassell Publishing Co. $5.
Reunited: A Story of the Civil War. Robert Bonner's Sons.
Scott, E. The Eclogues of Calpurnius. London: George Bell & Sons.
Smith, G. Canada First. Toronto: Hunter, Rose & Co.
Sommers, Lillian. Jerome Leaster. Chicago: Charles H. Sergel & Co.
Southworth, Mrs. E. Lilith. Robert Bonner's Sons.
Squier, E. G. Adventures on the Mosquito Shore. Worthington Co.
Steele, G. M. Rudimentary Economics. Leach, Shewell & Sanborn.
Stephen, L. Dictionary of National Biography. Vol. XXV. Macmillan & Co. $3.75.
Stephens, Ann S. Married in Haste. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Brothers. 25 cents.
Stevens's Facsimiles of Manuscripts in European Archives relating to America, 1773–83. Vol. VI. London: B. F. Stevens.

Fine Arts.

WATER-COLORS AND ETCHINGS AT THE ACADEMY.

THE twenty-fourth annual exhibition of the American Water-Color Society, held this year as usual in the galleries of the National Academy of Design, is quite as good an exhibition as any of its predecessors. It is without the customary two or three striking works that in former years we have sometimes felt compelled to mention as the *clous* of the exhibition, such works as Mr. Abbey, or Mr. Weir, or Mr. Homer have contributed; but the average is excellent. There are 661 pictures, a very large number of works for any exhibition, and it is something to be able to say that there are not many bad pictures. Another fact to be noted is that there is more of what may be called pure water-color work in this exhibition than ever before, and this shows that more attention is being given by the painters to this branch of art for its own sake. Not many years ago most of the work in the water-color exhibitions bore the look of having been done in water-color so as to get it into an exhibition that barred out painting in other mediums; most of it was without any particular fitness as to subject for water-color treatment; much of it was evidently mere copying of studies in oil. Now Messrs. Platt, Wiles, Horatio Walker, Hassam, Smedley, Sterner, Ranger, Drake, Mrs. Nicholls, Miss Greatorex, and others may be called water-color painters in the right sense of the word, just as Mr. Homer and Mr. Weir have been for a long time; and each year we find more painters making use of the medium of water-color, because they can express what they wish to depict in a certain way better in that medium than in oil.

Neither Mr. Weir nor Mr. Abbey is among the contributors to this year's exhibition, but Mr. Homer is represented by one drawing. This picture, called "Mending Nets," No. 364, shows two fisher-girls seated on a bench, in profile to the spectator, and the one in front knitting blue-yarn socks. Her right arm is raised in the action of drawing up more yarn from the ball that lies on the floor or pavement beside her, and her head is naturally turned to follow the movement of the hand. The other figure is bent over, intent on the work of mending a large net which is hung on the wall to the right of the picture. Both figures are admirable in movement and in character, and the group is composed with that large, fine feeling for great lines that we find in Mr. Homer's best work. That we find it very good, but not quite so good as some of his other pictures, is because, though excellent in composition and character, it is not quite complete. The group in itself is admirable, but it is hard to make out just what is meant by the background. The figures seem to be in the open air, but the white expanse behind them, though it seems to be a plaster wall, might also be taken for sky. We judge the work merely by Mr. Homer's own high standard, and if it does not in all respects quite come up to that, it is none the less one of the most individual and able drawings in the exhibition.

Simply washed and in general frankly treated, is the head of a "Dutch Girl," No. 214, by Albert E. Sterner, and very much colored are two other drawings by the same artist, "Lady Maude," No. 65, and "Before Dinner," No. 273. Very frank and very clever, too, is the "Study," No. 370, by Eleanor E. Greatorex, which shows an old woman under an umbrella; and an artistic little figure notable for good treatment of blacks is "Sketch," No. 434, by Frank Fowler. Mr. Wiles, who handles water-color with the most delightful skill, is well represented by three pictures, of which the one called "With Thoughts Afar," No. 409, is not quite so satisfactory as it would be if there were more body in the figure of the young woman in a red gown who lies on a pile of green-plush cushions on a sofa, with a piece of red-and-gold embroidered stuff hanging on the wall behind her. "The Débutante," No. 349, a single figure of a young girl in a green dress with black fur trimming, is much more solid, and in "A Hothouse Flower," No. 38, we find, along with infinite skill in painting and much charm of color, another young woman, seated on the steps of a greenhouse this time, who is as picturesque as either of the others, and the centre of a composition that is complete enough in all its parts to make a satisfactory and pleasing picture. Mr. Hassam, whose work seems a trifle "mannered" in his large drawing, "Fifth Avenue," No. 466, in that the blacks are forced up to a high key and turned to blue, though the effect of air is very well rendered and the numerous figures in the street scene are effectively composed, is seen at his best in the bright, quickly painted study in sunlight, "A Street in Gloucester," No. 75; and Mrs. Nicholls, with a picture called "The Chrysanthemum Season," No. 569, gives a truthful rendering of an outdoor motive painted in the simplest fashion with notable cleverness. Mr. Tiffany shows a large sheet, "Potters' Market on the Quay at Wurtzburg," No. 579, that is bright and airy and possesses serious qualities of color; and Mr. Reinhart in "Summer Girl," No. 114, gives a good single figure of a lady in black, effectively contrasted with the old-gold and yellow tones of the walls of a room in which she is shown seated on a settle with a railed back.

The smaller of Mr. Horatio Walker's two contributions, "A Pastoral," No. 14, a bit of gray landscape with a woman milking a cow, is very good and charmingly painted, but the larger one, "Evening," No. 385, which represents a man going home through the fields with his ox, seems a trifle vague. It is a drawing of much character, however, and evidently the work of a hand that is sure of itself. What it lacks is solidity more than anything else, and if that were more felt there would be little to find fault with, for it is a fine piece of color. Mr. Chase makes one of the most striking pictures in the exhibition out of a simple half-length portrait of a lady in black painted entirely in *gouache*—a brilliant and luminous head with strong painting in the costume; and Mr. Smedley, who also elects to paint in body-color mostly, contributes an excellent figure of a young woman in pink seated before a cheval-glass, "If Roses Fade," No. 334. Good interiors with figures are shown by Stanley Middleton, "A Visit to the Studio," No. 410; by Ralph E. Clarkson, "A New York Studio," No. 404; and by Frank Russell Green, "An Evening Melody," No. 226. "Two Strings to Her Bow," No. 265, is a picture by Léon Moran of two young gallants and a pretty girl; a nice composition and cleverly handled. "The Return of Spring," No. 339, by Arthur Parton, a well-painted landscape, with a figure of a man sowing seed in a freshly-ploughed and harrowed field, and a pretty picture of a Dutch boy with a young lamb in his arms and another standing on the grass at his side, "Friends," No. 374, by Clark Crum, are two scenes of country life to be mentioned for their excellence, and with these may be noted "Un Appel," No. 247, and "Forenoon," No. 259, by Aug. Franzén, both works of good size with landscape and figures, and both brilliant and effective.

In pure landscape there is nothing better in the exhibition than "Spring Flood," No. 448, by Charles A. Platt, a charming picture painted in pale grays and greens, though "Winter—Central Park," No. 71, by D. W. Tryon, a soberly treated effect of snow in the park, with the upper part of the city lying low down to the horizon beyond, is as good in its own direction as it well could be. "After the Rain," No. 34, by H. Bolton Jones; "Evening," No. 351, by Bruce Crane; "Shed and Stack," No. 406, by H. W. Ranger; "Hackensack Meadows," No. 129, by C. Harry Eaton; "Outskirts of the Forest," No. 101, by Edward Moran; and "A Silvery Night," No. 117, by Leonard Ochtman, are a few landscapes among the many good ones here that are especially worthy of mention. "Autumn Evening," No. 193, by one of the best of the Dutch water-color painters, V. B. von Tholen, shows how admirable the work of the modern Dutch school is when we can find an example of the best work of the painters that belong to it.

The exhibition of the New York Etching Club is held in the corridor, and is an excellent one, Mr. Platt's beautiful work, Mr. Pennell's street scenes in London, Mr. Bacher's in Venice, Mr. Weir's three portraits, Miss Armstrong's genre subjects, the landscapes by Mr. Thomas Moran, Mr. H. Bolton Jones, and Mr. T. R. Manley, and Mr. Chapman's marines, are the principal things in the exhibition, and all extremely good; and as much may be said of some street scenes in New York by C. W. Mielatz, a portrait head by James D. Smillie, and an avenue of elms in New Haven by Miss Ellen Oakford. It would be hard to find anywhere etchings by any modern man that are as good in their way as Mr. Platt's work in this exhibition. They rank decidedly with the very best of modern work in Europe, and are certainly the best things he has yet done, though his former plates have been so good as to give him a very high reputation.

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